

Underrepresentation of Women: Academic Excellence and Positions of Power in Universities

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ABSTRACT

Despite the influx of women in universities, they are still hampered by the existence of societal, organisational, and personal gendered values and attitudes towards their work and non-work responsibilities; these impediments could hamper the women to access academic excellence and positions of power.

The study is a contribution to knowledge and existing literature on the impediments hindering the women to access upper echelons of academia, creating underrepresentation at higher academic levels, career experiences, glass ceiling which has been under-researched, especially in Pakistan. It claims to have made a contribution to a wider understanding of personal, organisational and societal barriers which women are experiencing in universities by exploring lack of support for family and parenting responsibilities, gender role expectations, patriarchal university culture, lack of social capital in universities, impact of cultural practices of harassment, lack of implementation of harassment Act and inadequate measures which could further impede the women in accessing the higher academic positions.

The triangulation research method has been used for this study. Firstly, the survey of employed women working in different hierarchical positions (Research/Administrative Assistant-Professor) reflected the prevalence and magnitude of personal, organisational and societal barriers along with other conceivable dynamics in universities and its impact on the restricted access to attain higher hierarchical positions. Secondly, semi-structured interviews of the head of the departments, directors and deans of institutes were primarily, meant to explore the implementation of Harassment Act (2010). They were liable to implement the Act for diminishing harassment in universities. The interviews also explored the reason and barriers which women academics could experience to access the position of power and excellence. Thirdly, the observation carried to explore, if the harassment Act was displayed in the departments/ Institutes/schools of public (small, large), large private and large public-private universities.

The findings of the research have revealed that a large proportion of women working on lower hierarchical levels in four different types of universities. The adequate educational qualification, job experience and research productivity are mandatory to access the higher hierarchical positions. However, various personal commitments, organisational practises and

societal experience could inhibit to acquire requisite credentials. Beside the stated barriers social conservatism, patriarchal mindset, lack of kids and family amenities and lack of implementation of the Harassment Act (2010) could further worsen the scenario.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Trotz der starken Präsenz von Frauen an Universitäten können ihnen aufgrund der noch existierenden gesellschaftlich, organisatorisch und persönlich vergeschlechtlichten Werte und Einstellungen gegenüber ihrer beruflichen Arbeit und ihren privaten Verantwortlichkeiten der Weg zu akademischer Exzellenz und Machtpositionen erschwert werden.

Die Studie trägt zum dem bereits vorhandenem Wissen und der existierenden Literatur bei, die sich mit Hindernissen beschäftigt, die Frauen den Zugang zu den oberen Rängen der Wissenschaft erschweren. Ebenso bewirken fehlende Karriere-Erfahrungen und der erschwerte Weg durch die noch nicht ausreichend erforschte sogenannte „gläserne Decke“ die Unterrepräsentation in höheren akademischen Positionen, insbesondere in Pakistan. Die Studie soll zu einem breiteren Verständnis von persönlichen, organisationalen und sozialen Barrieren, mit denen Frauen konfrontiert sind, beitragen. Dazu gehören die mangelnde Unterstützung bei Verantwortung durch Familie und Elternschaft, geschlechtsspezifischen Rollenerwartungen in Universitäten, patriarchalischer Hochschulkultur, fehlendem universitären Sozialkapital und Auswirkungen kultureller Praktiken der Belästigung. Einer mangelnden Gesetzgebung letztgenannter Praktiken samt unzureichenden Gegenmaßnahmen können Frauen den Zugang zu höheren akademischen Positionen erschweren.

Für die vorliegende Studie wurde die Forschungsmethode der Triangulation verwendet. Erstens reflektiert die Umfrage die Verbreitung und das Ausmaß der persönlichen, organisatorischen und sozialen Barrieren von erwerbstätigen Frauen in unterschiedlichen hierarchischen Positionen (Assistant-Professor in Forschung/Verwaltung) sowie weitere erdenkliche Dynamiken in Universitäten und deren Auswirkungen in Bezug auf den eingeschränkten Zugang zu höheren Positionen. Zweitens wurden semistrukturierte Interviews mit Abteilungsleitern, Direktoren und Dekanen der Institute geführt, um primär die Anwendung des Belästigungsgesetzes (2010; engl. Harassment Act), welches zum Zwecke der Verminderung von Belästigungen an Universitäten implementiert wurde, zu untersuchen. Des Weiteren wird untersucht, welche Gründe und Barrieren sich Wissenschaftlerinnen in den Weg stellen können, auf mit Macht und Exzellenz verbundene

Positionen zu gelangen. Drittens verfolgt die Untersuchung die Durchführung des Gesetzes in öffentlichen und privaten Universitäten und Schulen.

Die Forschungsergebnisse haben offen gelegt, dass ein Großteil der Frauen in unteren Hierarchieebenen beschäftigt ist. Um höhere Positionen besetzen zu können, sind entsprechende pädagogische Qualifikationen, berufliche Erfahrungen und Forschungsleistung zwingend erforderlich. Jedoch können unterschiedliche persönliche Verpflichtungen, organisatorische Vorgehensweisen und gesellschaftliche Erfahrungen Frauen davon abhalten, die nötige Qualifikation zu erwerben. Außer den Barrieren des sozialen Konservatismus können eine patriarchale Mentalität, mangelnde Unterstützung für Familie und Kinder und eine geringe Umsetzung des Belästigungsgesetzes (2010) die Lage weiter verschlechtern.

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ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|------------------|--|
| AEPAM | Academy of Educational Planning and Management, Pakistan |
| AP. Asstt. Prof. | Assistant Professor |
| BPS | Basic Pay Scale |
| BS (Hons.) | Bachelors in Science (Honours) |
| CH | Credit Hours |
| EU | European Union |
| GEDS | Global Education Dialogues |
| GC | Glass Ceiling |
| HE | Higher Education |
| HEC | Higher Education Commission of Pakistan |
| HEI | Higher Education Institutions |
| JCR | Journal Citation Report |
| M.Phil. | Master of Philosophy |
| MS | Masters of Science |
| PCST | Pakistan Council for Science and Technology |
| PhD | Doctor of Philosophy |
| PU | University of the Punjab, Lahore |
| SH | Sexual Harassment |
| TTS | Tenure Track system |
| UK | United Kingdom |
| USA | United States of America |

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Underrepresentation of Women in Academia

The scientific literature continuously highlighted, if women try to achieve a higher hierarchical level, they might experience a type of exploitation and bigoted treatments¹ (Charlesworth, & Graham, 2015). Although women's advancement in the workplace has taken significant strides in the past 50 years (Carr et al., 2015; O'Meara, 2015; Othman & Othman, 2015; Schwanke, 2013; Waller et al., 2015). However, the apprehension on the representation of women in higher hierarchical levels, most powerful and influential posts in higher education institutions and universities across the globe, is well established² (Avin et al., 2015).

The developing countries like Pakistan is not an exemption (Saher, Ali, & Matloob, 2014) where the generations of women may have faced discrimination, harassment, male-dominating networks and intimidation as a part of work and impediments to achieving higher hierarchical level (Saher, Ali, & Matloob, 2014; Sharma & Sehwat, 2015). Consequently, the Higher Education Institutions (HEI) like universities are facing increasingly complex challenges retaining the women at work (Uche & Jack, 2014) and insignificant proportion of women passing through the barriers and reaching positions of excellence.

¹ Ahmed, Maqsood & Hyder, 2009; Ahmed & Hyder, 2008; Batool, Sajid, & Shaheen, 2013; Hejase, 2015; Howe-Walsh & Turnbull, 2014; Howe-Walsh, & Turnbull 2016; Ismail, 2010; Jabbar & Imran, 2013; Khan, Rehman & Dost, 2012; McDonald, Thomas, 2015; Morley & Crossouard, 2016; Rehman & Tariq, 2012; Saher, Ali, & Matloob, 2014; Tomei, 2006

² Atkinson., Casarico., & Voitchovsky, 2014; Bosquet, Combes, & García-Peñalosa, 2014; Bruckmüller, 2014; Fletcher et al, 2007; Raburu, 2015; Cook & Glass, 2014; Holliday et al, 2014; Howe-Walsh, & Turnbull, 2016; Howe-Walsh & Turnbull, 2014; Leslie et al., 2015; Machado-Taylor & Ozkanli, 2013; Mayuzumi, 2015; Schwab, 2013; Stainback, Kleiner, & Skaggs 2016; Taylor-Abdulai et al., 2014; Tomei, 2006; Zeng, 2011

1.2 Pakistan Women Population

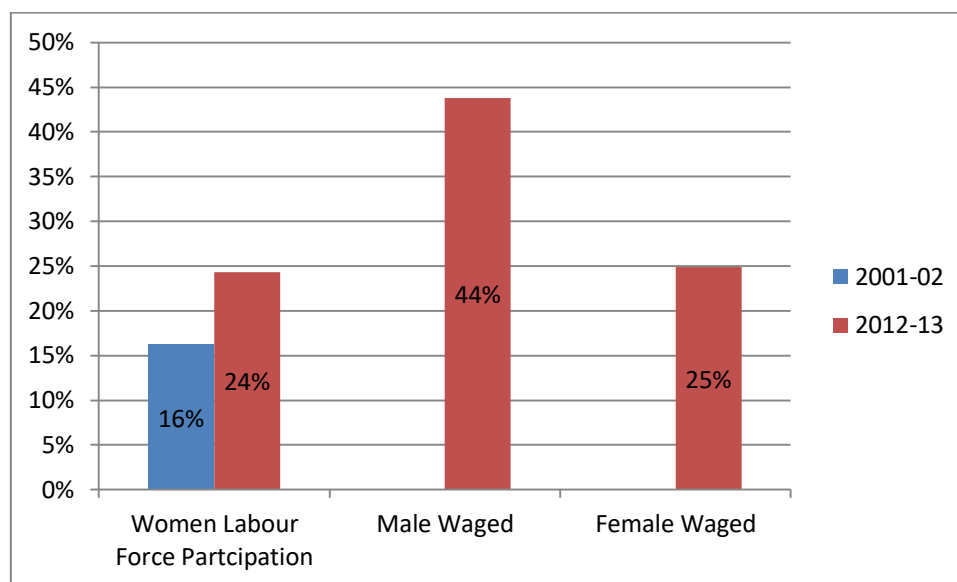
Pakistan situated in a region where five of the South Asian countries (Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka) rank between 68 and 141 out of 142 countries in the Global Gender Gap, and Pakistan ranked 141 (WEC, 2014). Similarly, women in Pakistan are struggling to access decision-making positions at the Micro (personal), Meso (organisational) and Macro (societal) level and are often excluded from serious consultative processes. Although Pakistan has a high rate of women in Parliament (19 % of representatives in the upper and lower houses) compared to other countries in South Asia, however their presence in Parliament did not translate into more decision-making power in the society. Although, they were undeniably integral part of unpaid and undocumented work, largely in the agricultural farms since country's creation (1947). The women of Pakistan have been disadvantaged relative to the men of similar social standing. Since 1998 Pakistan did not have a census (after the gap of 19 years finally it started in 2017), so the absence of the reliable data is a major problem. Although, some statistics are available through national and international statistical surveys which would shed some light on the status of women in Pakistan. As far as the statistics about literacy rate are concerned, despite the recent surge in women enrolment, still there are some disparities between male and females literacy rate of youth (15-24 year old). According to the statistical data collected by UNICEF in 2008-2012, the female literacy rate of youth was 61.5 % compared to the males 79.1 % (UNICEF, 2015).

Historically, the social and cultural factors might have barred most of the women from entering the job market sprouting from societal, cultural and religious constraints (Bagchi & Raju 2013). However, with the recent changes in Pakistan, caused by increased economic pressures, expansion of educational facilities and improved access to educational institutions, more and more women are getting a higher education. Consequently, are entering the job market, almost in all spheres including previously exclusive male professions (Army, Police, Air Force, Aviation, Engineering), still teaching and Medicine is widely popular among professions for women.

1.3 Employability of Women in Pakistan

Today, the number of females has increased in almost all organisations in Pakistan. According to Pakistan Employment Trends Report (2013), women have benefited nationally from the overall labour market, including academia; women's participation in paid employment has increased from 16 % in 2001-02 to 24 % in 2012-13. Despite this trend, however, men benefited more from improvements in the labour market than women. In 2012-13, 44 % of the adult male population had wage or salaried job compared to 25 % of females (Pakistan Employment Trends, 2013). The Following Fig. Shows the employment trends of male and female in Pakistan.

Figure 1: Labour Force Participation of Women in Pakistan



Source: Pakistan Employment Trends, 2013

Regardless of overall growth in the female labour force participation in Pakistan, it is well below than the countries in the region which have same income levels. At the same time, there is a massive lag of women labour force participation with university degrees, only around 25 % of women with a university degree in Pakistan are working (ADB, 2016). The following section will mainly focus on the employability of women in Higher Education Institution (HEIs).

1.4 Pakistan's Higher Education Trends

Since last two decades, there was a surge in enrollment of students in a higher education institution. According to Higher Education Commission of Pakistan³ (HEC) report, it has risen from 276 million students in 2001-02 to 869 million in 2009-10, with a further 16 % increase in 2011-12. It claimed that in 2010-2011, there were 45 % female students in Higher Education Institutions (HEI), (HEC, 2012). However, a report by Academy of Educational Planning and Management, Pakistan (AEPAM) suggested female participation in HEI was only 33 %. The report further added the higher education (HE) sector representing only 0.5 % of Pakistan's educational system; gross enrollment is similarly around 0.5 % (AEPAM, 2011).

Conversely, the data about the HEIs staff in Pakistan with gender segregation is concerned, it is not systematically maintained, and the trend is consistent with other countries in the region. For instance, recently as a part of South Asia Region – Global Education Dialogues (GEDS), The British Council in Pakistan has gathered and compiled data on Women, Higher Education and Leadership from six South Asian countries (Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka). Their report found there was an overwhelming absence of statistical data in the region regarding women and leadership. Whenever gender factor was included in reports and statistical data, it was only related to students, rather on staff. They also discovered there was a lack of substantive scholarship and research on the topic of women and leadership in higher education in the region (Moorly & Crossouard, 2015).

There was insufficient information available to Pakistan's HEIs staff at national level. Though, the HEC is a regulatory body of Higher Education Institutions (HEI) and HEC

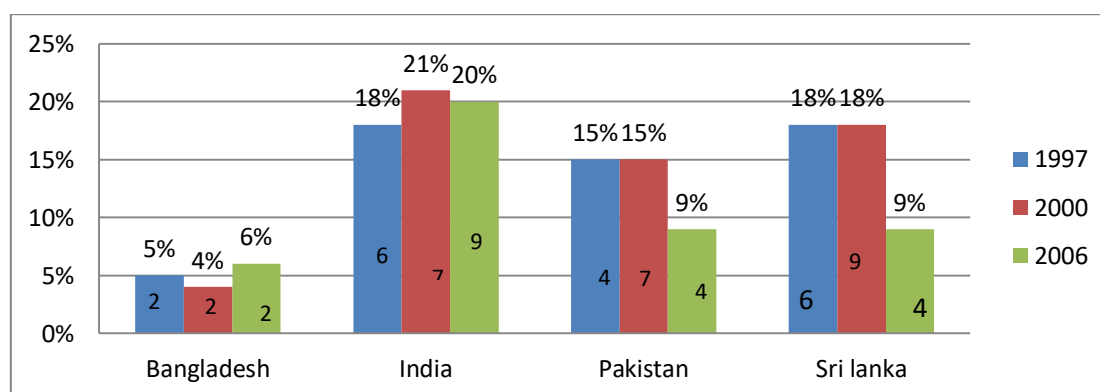
³ Higher Educations Commission (HEC) is an independent, autonomous, and constitutionally established institution of primary funding, supervising, regulating, and accrediting the Higher Education Institutions (HEI) and Higher Education (HE) in Pakistan. If any Higher Education Institution, higher education degree and/or any publication (s) nationally or internationally are non-recognized by HEC are considered null and void.

Website contains Annual Reports from 2002 onwards for most of the years, but has upheld no data for women's leadership or employment. Although they kept the track record of numbers of faculty in public and private institutions, and in distance learning for 2010-11, they have also recorded the number of PhD faculties by discipline but not by gender. Similarly, the AEPAM has also compiled the figures relevant to primary, secondary and higher education enrollment without focusing on to compile higher education (HE) staffing.

At the same time, Pakistan Council for Science and Technology (PCST) is authorised for advising Governments on developing Science and Technology Nationally. They claim to be involved in policy studies, policy recommendations, policy making and help to instrument policies in the country. Ironically, they are also determined to mainstream the underrepresentation of women in labour market without carrying any National level survey.

The debate above highlighted there is a scarcity of existing data on female staff in HEIs in Pakistan. In this situation, it nearly becomes challenging to get the statistics about women working at various hierarchical scales in HEIs. The only available survey of female academics in Commonwealth Universities carried by Singh (2008) highlighted Pakistani and South Asian academia trends, which will be discussed in the following section:-

Figure 2: Female Dean's Proportion in Higher Education Institutions of South Asia

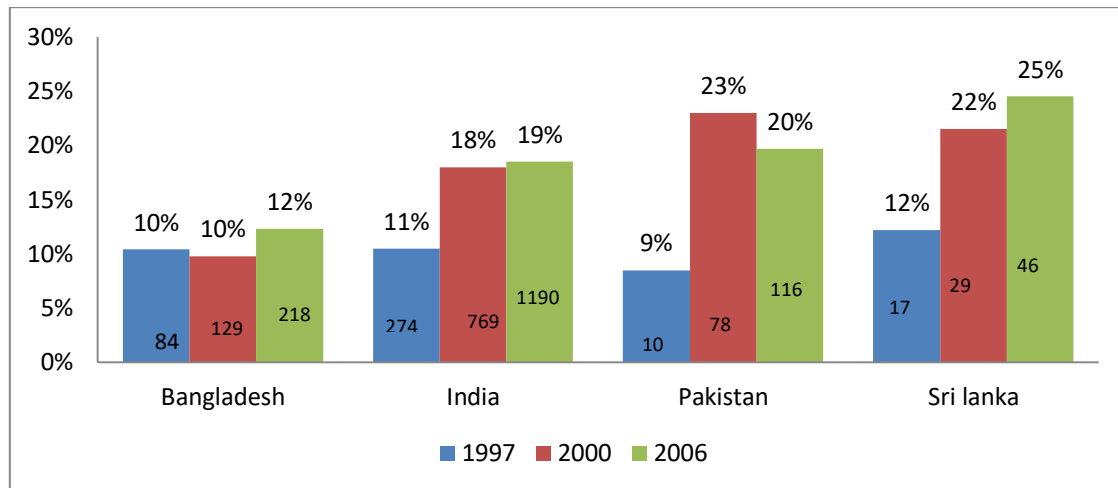


Source: Singh (2008)

The graph mentioned above shows, Pakistan stands at the second last position of female Deans in HEIs in the South Asian region. Despite the unavailability of past data, one can assume from above graph that this could be a higher representation of women Deans in the country, after the improved participation of women in the region. Therefore, the presence

of only four female Dean in 2006 goes to show how insignificant the woman's presence was in the decision making positions in HEIs till 2006 in Pakistan specifically.

Figure 3: Female Professor's Proportion in Higher Education Institutions of South Asia



Source: Singh (2008)

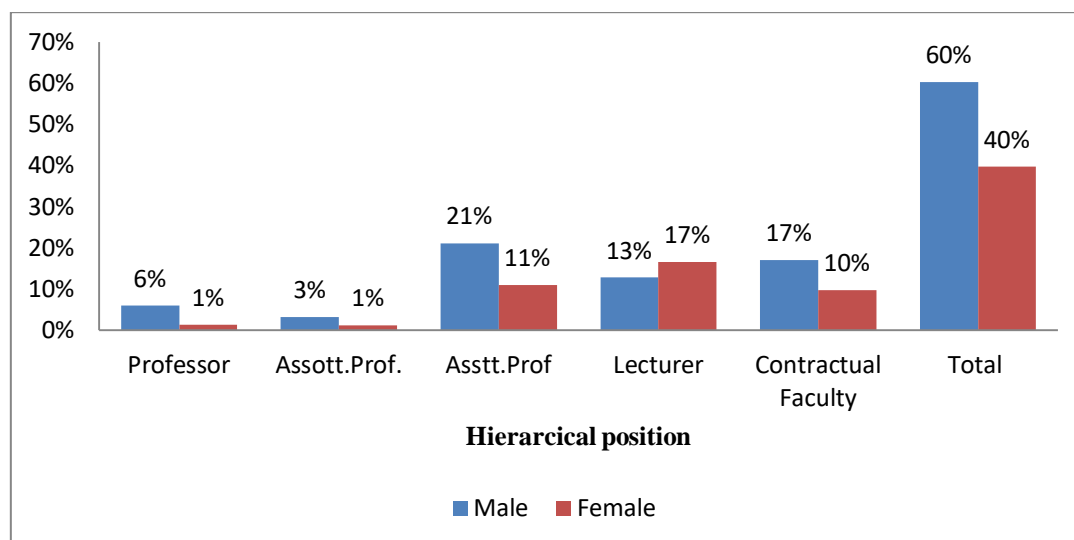
The graph above shows in 2006 and 2000 the percentage of women Professors in Pakistan was 20 % and 23 % consecutively, which is much higher than 1997s proportion. Due to the unavailability of the past data, however, it can be assumed, after the turn of the new century, this percentage of women professors in the country would have been highest after the maximum induction of women in the workforce. Regardless of the least existence of women in the labour force in the region and Pakistan specifically, nevertheless, the percentage of female Professors in the South Asian region, are equating with the Western trends for women Professors in universities (this will be discussed in next chapter).

At the same time, one of the biggest and oldest institutions of higher learning in Pakistan, University of Punjab, Lahore (2012) has compiled statistics of its staff about hierarchical proportions by gender. The report shows an enormous gender difference in the number of male and female faculty working at various hierarchical levels. Most of the women were working on lower academic hierarchy, i.e. Lecturers⁴, as the next fig. shows the

⁴ Eligibility Criteria for Faculty in Pakistan

substantial number of women (17 %) was working as Lecturer. However contractual faculty's hierarchal level was still undocumented in the data.

Figure 4: Gender Segregated Data of a University in Pakistan



Source: Fact Book, PU 2012

Lecturer: First Class Master's Degree OR equivalent degree awarded after 16 Years of education, with no 3rd division in the academic career (equivalent to C grade, 50-59 %), No prior experience required. **Assistant Professor:** Ph.D. in relevant field, Master's degree (foreign) or M.Phil. (Pakistan) or equivalent degrees awarded after 18 years of education. No experience required with Ph.D., whereas with Master's degree 4-years teaching/research experience required. There is no requirement of Publication (s). **Associate Professor:** Ph.D. with 10-years of teaching/research experience and at least 4-years Post-PhD level experience in University or postgraduate institution or professional experience **OR**, 5-years post-PhD teaching/ research experience. The candidate must have 10 research publications (with at least 4 publications in the last 5 years in the HEC recognized Journals). **Professor:** Ph.D. with 15-years teaching/research experience and at least 8 years Post Ph.D. **OR** 10-years post-Ph.D. teaching/research experience and 15 research publications with at least 5 publications in the last 5 years in HEC recognized journals. * *Appendix G for details.*

1.5 Social Structure and Cultural Practices in Pakistan

As the previous section has highlighted despite the lack of emphasis on tracking the progress of women in HEIs, still, there are some trends shown by available statistical data in the region that women are under-represented in academic excellence and position of powers in universities. Insensitivity in maintaining the women employment trends might stem from conservative, patriarchal and agrarian mindset. So the, following section will highlight the socio-cultural practices and barriers, which might be influencing the women to progress in universities.

The area constituting Pakistan was historically a part of the British Indian Empire throughout much of the nineteenth century. Britain came to South Asia with East India Company for trading. They started their trade in the 17th century, and the company's rule officially started from 1757 when they won the Battle of Plassey (a victory of the British East India Company over the Nawab of Bengal and his French allies on 23 June 1757. This fight consolidated the Company's presence in Bengal, which later expanded to cover much of India over the next hundred years) (Bayly, 1988).

The uprising against the British East India Company started with the Indian Rebellion of 1857-58 (also called the First War of Independence) that was a major, but eventually unsuccessful attempt by the people of the Indian subcontinent. The rule of the British East India Company which had till then functioned as a sovereign power on behalf of the British crown, and finally, the Government of India Act 1858 led to the British Crown assuming direct control over much of the Indian subcontinent. However, a late 19th century and early 20th century had witnessed Movements in the subcontinent to get rid of British rule and get hold of self-governing land. These Movements eventually led the Muslims of sub continent realised, after the departure of British Rulers; they would be exploited by Hindu leaders (as they were the majority). So the Muslims started struggling to get the subcontinent divided into two sovereign lands as India (Hindu majority areas) and Pakistan (Muslim majority areas) (Anderson, 2007).

Finally, Pakistan got the independence from British Rule in 1947 in the subcontinent, it was Religious-Political Movement, as Muslims of the Subcontinent sought a self-governing territory where they can govern and practice religion without intimidation. Eventually, the

British rule ended with the partition of Indian sub-continent into two parts of Pakistan and India (14 August 1947). Since the independence, Pakistan was struggling with several challenges including distribution of land (There was an agreement before partition that Muslim majority areas will be granted to Pakistan, but, Kashmir a Muslim majority area (85% Muslim Population) was given to India, which laid the stone of dispute between two countries. To get hold of this area Pakistan and India have fought various wars in 1948, 1965, 1971 (This war led East Pakistan separated, and a new land came into being as Bangladesh in 1971). The imbalanced military and financial assets, canal water disputes (most of the rivers flowing in Pakistan have an origin in India, there were disputes over water distribution), and finally mass migration across border based on religion created huge human sufferings (Khalid, 2009).

Social Institutions in Pakistan could not evolve and developed as anticipated before the Independence. Firstly, Muhammad Ali Jinnah (founder of Pakistan) was first Governor General of Pakistan, died in 1948 due to long illness; afterwards in 1951 first Prime Minister of Pakistan was murdered in a political rally. Although, these deaths created a huge gap in leadership, however, since 1956, Pakistan could not make his first ever Constitution. Shortly after the first constitution promulgated, it abrogated in 1958 following first Military coup 1958, and after that, there was series of Military Coup in Pakistan starting from 1958, 1968-69, 1971-73, 1977-79, and 1999-2001. Nevertheless, the Military Rules lingered for much extended periods starting from 1958-1971 (13 Years), 1977-1988 (11 Years), and 1999-2008 (9 Years). Throughout the Military Rules, Constitutions either remained suspended or partially imposed. Therefore, time and again Pakistan remained under the military regulations, and during that period Civil Governments and Civil Institutes could not develop and flourish. However, whenever the Civil Governments came into the power, the unscrupulous governance was further triggering the social problems like poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, inadequate health facilities, corruption, sex discrimination (Iqbal, 2010, Mehmood, 2001, Rizvi, 2003).

As far as stratification in the society is concerned, it has traces in India's Hindu caste system. Historically Pakistani culture aligned by ascribed status, those who were born in particular caste/clan was considered to be superiors, regardless of economic conditions. However, those who managed to prove strong ties with British Empire had grabbed large

terrain of agriculture land; later they became the ruling elite of Pakistan. The landlords owned large pieces of agricultural land, and farmers and peasant were living on their extrinsic lands, and they were reliant on the landlord for food, shelter and sustainability. Consequently, a vast majority was exploited by the landlords and remained weak for decades (Tabassum, 2011). Although, the large agricultural land is still monopolised by feudal holds but, gradually due to globalisations, electronic, and print media's influence stratification started emerging from the economic class system in the society. If 2\$ (American Dollar) is considered to be the minimum daily wage, then 60 % of Pakistan's population is living under the poverty line (Pakistan Economic Survey, 2014). The elites of the society are Feudals, Industrialists, Law Makers and Businessmen; they are immensely detached from the general public. They are drinking expensive French mineral waters and getting preventive health checkups from exclusive American or European health institutes. However, on the contrary, a significant majority in the country do not have access to clean drinking water. Generally, the public hospitals are not equipped with life-saving drugs and equipment. The general masses are struggling to access non-contaminated food, drinks, life-saving medicines and independent single bed in public hospitals.

1.5.1 Gender Role Expectations in Pakistan

The Muslims of sub continent struggled to attain a separate land where they could execute Islamic cultural practices. On the contrary, the cultural practices in Pakistan were tremendously influenced by Hindu culture, due to their extensive shared cultural history. The women of Pakistan have always been disadvantaged relative to the men of the same class. In Pakistan, the men have always been the head of the household either father, brother or uncles in extended families. They were responsible for taking the decisions at Micro or Meso levels about the women of their family including marriage, education and employment. There are certain discriminatory customs against women executed by men in the society, which are the examples of primitive societies like Vani: where a young girl is forcibly married as a part of the punishment or to settle the disputes for a crime committed by her male relative. The crimes could be murder, robbery, kidnapping, members of the local community called Jirga (Council) decide the punishment or settlement. Although By the Criminal Law (Amendment)

Act, 2005, the practice of giving females in badal-i-sulah (as an exchange of peace) was declared a penal offence, however, it is still prevalent (Muni & Akhter, 2014).

Another discriminatory practice is called Karo Kari that is a premeditated honour killing which originated in rural and tribal areas of Sind, Pakistan. This is conducted against the women who brought the dishonour to their family, either marrying on her own or illicit premarital or extra-marital relations (Patel & Gadit, 2008).

Additionally, another custom is Exchange marriages (*Watta satta*) where Brother-Sister pair from two households is married. Occasionally, it may involve uncle-niece pairs or cousin pairs. The exchange marriages are more than just an exchange of women from two families or clans. It is a counter tackling strategy to manage the threat (domestic violence, dowry demand, divorce threats) across the marriages. A husband who abuses his wife in this arrangement can expect his brother-in-law to retaliate correspondingly against his sister (Jacoby & Mansuri, 2010).

The decisions to get education and marriage were primarily in the hand of men. Yet presently highly educated women are experiencing endogamy, as they are forced to marry oblivious men of their family or caste/, tribe/clan. As marrying outside, caste is not appreciated primarily in rural Pakistan, as one caste tribe/clan consider themselves to be superior to others. They corroborated inter-caste marriage may bring dishonour to their clan/caste (Shami, 1994).

Since long, the women were restricted to socialise alone; they had to accompany some male members of their family as a sign of protection. In the absence of any elder, a woman was encouraged to escort a younger boy of the household. Simultaneously, in some parts of the country, mainly in rural areas, until a few decades ago, a significant majority of women were not even permitted to visit the markets and shop for themselves. As visiting the shopping centres was considered a lifestyle of licentious or immoral women, some male member of the family might procure utilities on women's behalf (Mumtaz & Salway, 2005).

Along with issues mentioned above, there are certainly other problems which historically barred most of the women from entering the job market (Manzoor, 2015). Traditionally, as the majority of the population was living in rural areas (although, after the substantial rural-urban migration new urban population is Approx. 39 %). In the countryside health and educational facilities so far are inadequate compared to urban areas. However, the

standard of education in urban areas is also not up to the global criterions. Therefore, due to massive concentration of population in rural areas, majority of the women from poor families were working in agricultural fields which were typically unremunerated assistance (They are struggling to sustain. The absence of any social support from Government and dubious standard of public schools was making schooling and education an inaccessible arena for them). Though they did collect consumable grains or agricultural products, the surplus product would be transported by men to the urban centres, eventually making the men the in-charge of gross remuneration (Pakistan Demographic Trends, 2015). The majority of women population in rural areas was poor, uneducated and was controlled by men.

On the other hand, the middle classes in the countryside might be motivated for females' education. However, the scarcity of primary and secondary school near the villages and unavailability of the reliable public transport might restrict them to send them away from home. The absence of safe school passages, safe public and private transports were a major hurdle for parents in rural and urban areas, which eventually lead to the lower enrollment of young women in schools (Lloyd, Mete, & Sathar, 2005). Researchers even in recent past are pointing that women are experiencing massive sexual harassment in public transports from an onlooker, fellow passengers and/or any random male on their way to school and work (ADB, 2016).

Although, the Metropolitan centres had better opportunities for higher education of girls, again the safety of girls on the ways to school was the biggest concern of parents. Somehow, girls who managed to complete secondary schools or graduations, marrying them earliest was utmost important for parents than to allow them to search paid jobs. It was considered a stigma for middle-class family's prestige and honour that the family is being fed by females (as men were the breadwinner of the household) (Manzoor, 2015).

1.5.2 Social Change in Pakistan

Nonetheless, in last two decades, the trends were changing in the society. Mainly due to expanding print and electronic media, globalisation, the emergence of the internet, development of educational facilities in rural and urban areas, high inflation rates, increased economic and sustainability pressures, the high divorce rate in society, parents started

aspiring market-oriented higher education for their daughters. The higher education could maximise the attainability of employment after the completion of higher education; the female would be able to financially support themselves in adverse circumstances (Moghadam, 2003).

These trends instigated participation of women in the workforce. However, following the escalated entry to the labour force, women confronted another series of challenges. Traditionally, men have always enjoyed an authoritative position in Pakistani society. They controlled the micro and macro level decisions. This patriarchal mindset and dominant hegemonic masculinities in the society lead to the lack of cultural capital of women in the workplace, which construct further marginalisations (Pakistan Employment Trends, 2013).

Recently, although more women are entering the job market, still traditional mindset is an ultimate challenge to the domestic and professional sphere. Conventionally, women were restricted to rove independently and took their decisions, however when they decided to come out of houses and commute alone; they may face hindrances, barrier, intimidations and harassment as a part of the routine. Similarly, at home, they have diverse challenges; as women had mostly been working inside the home and taking care of kids, husband, and extended families. Currently, with additional professional duties, the household may require them to earn enough money, but women may require prioritising family and domestic tasks. In some instances, educated and employed women may not have control over their salaries, either Husband, Mother-in-Law, Father-in-Law in particular cases parents and siblings might have control over their remunerations. Regarding married women, if few refused to hand over their salaries, they may face the turmoil of aftermath, by abuse, constrained marital relations. The married women may also face the backlash by in-laws that they are feeding their parents if they are not handing over all the monthly salaries. Occasionally, Mother in Law or husband requires the working women to hand over all the salary, and then women should render a request for the pocket money, and in charge of the money will decide to earn women's monthly or daily expenses. In the case of unmarried women, in some instances, parents may not be interested in marrying employed women (primarily parents serve as matchmakers), as they are bringing money at home.

Despite moving away from primitive and traditional obstacles and entering the contemporary workforce with better academic credentials, women in Pakistan still encounter

the barriers that males might not. Various unofficial, unseen and undocumented tools and practices could be used to impede the women on their way to success and reach the excellence, which will be discussed in detail in the following section.

1.5.3 Glass Ceiling

The scientific debate has identified a barrier called glass ceiling, in almost all the organisations in the world. This suggests the existence of an invisible and unchangeable barrier, which is working without any legal validity, it is based on implicit and unwritten agreements (Cagatay & Ozler, 2004; Cook & Glass, 2014) which women might face on their way to progress in the workplace.

The glass ceiling could be used to prevent women from achieving higher levels. It is important to mention that the location of this glass ceiling is different in different organisations and countries, in developed countries it could be seen more at mid management positions and in developing countries it could be seen more often at lower or entry level positions (Avin et al., 2015; Jayatilake et al., 2014, Petraki-Kottis, 2012; Sandhu, Singh & Batra, 2015). The glass ceiling increases organisational inequality and may have a direct effect on the working quality of the organisations (Petraki-Kottis, 2012). In the natural division of labour in organisations, consciously or unconsciously, women are marginalised. Various practices could be used in institutions, which could hinder the women on their way to progress, which might vary from society to society (Cook & Glass, 2014; Sandhu Singh & Batra, 2015).

So in the following sections, various barriers at work will be discussed as a glass ceiling, which might impede the women in universities in Pakistan in achieving academic excellence and positions of power.

1.5.4 Barriers

Around the world, women make the full-time workforce (Wirth, 2001), yet they are under-represented in the top hierarchical and influential posts globally (Davidson & Burke, 2012; Prokos & Padavic, 2002; Wirth, 2001). There are two important points of views on women's less representation in the upper echelon of academia; Firstly, women do not have

the skills or the interests or time to do serious scholarly work. Secondly, men intentionally discriminate them because they do not want to share power.

These beliefs still exist, the scientific literature has suggested, despite acquiring the prerequisite criteria to access the higher hierarchical positions, women are less likely to be appointed and promoted to higher hierarchical positions. There are some more subtle dynamics at work which could hinder the women at societal, organisational and individual level (Acker, 2009; Bailyn, 2003; Batool, Sajid & Shaheen, 2013; Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013). Simultaneously, sexual harassment is a societal practice of control and domination, which could impede the women at organisational and personal levels. It is already recognised that women, throughout the world who struggle to climb the hierarchical ladder tolerate sexual aggression as a part of their job (Batool, Sajid & Shaheen, 2013; Goette, 1997; Kahn, 2015; Morgan, 2001; Morgan, 2000; Niaz, 2003).

1.5.5 Harassment

Sexual harassment in the workplace is the leading form of gender-based inequality which working women are facing today in Pakistan. Human Rights watchdog reported that in Pakistan, 68 percent women are sexually harassed (Naz et al., 2013). Recently, some of the harassment cases of faculty and students by bosses and teachers of leading universities have been reported in the media. In one unique instance in Pakistani society, the female contractual faculty of the renowned University, has impeached the head of the Institute for permanent posting in exchange for sexual compliance, though the decision of the case has yet to come. According to Parveen (2010), a total 24119 of violence against women cases were reported during 2008-10 among of which only 520 workplace harassment claims were filed. Still, many of the women remain silent and reluctant to lodge a formal or informal complaint against sexual harassment experiences at the workplace. Due to the fear of losing a job, shame, stigmatisation on women's reputation and many of them do not want their families to have information on such issues (D'Cruz & Rayner, 2013). Similar conclusions exposed from India the majority of women managers (149) on record said they did not face sexual harassment at the workplace while working and climbing the hierarchical ladder. However, most of them accepted in personal interactions and in unrecorded oral discussions that they

did face sexual harassment at workplace. However, they were hesitant to put it on record, due to the fear of insult, shame, intimidation, being looked down upon, being tagged or labelled, social stigmatisation (Sandhu, Singh, & Batra, 2015).

Irrespective of pressures on universities to maximise its talent pool, women continue to be systemically underrepresented in senior academic and general staff positions in the schools (Howe-Walsh & Turnbull, 2014; Morley et al., 2017; Taylor-Abdulai et al., 2014). So in this scenario, it is assumed that the implementation of gender policies is inevitable for employed women to concentrate on their work

1.6 Workplace Discrimination Prohibitions

Although sex discrimination in the workplace is prohibited by law since 2010 in Pakistan by Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace Act, 2010 (Gillani, 2010). The enforcement of the Law is consistent with various other parts of the worlds⁵. However, it continues to be a widespread problem for working women around the world⁶.

Anti-sexual harassment law "Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace Act" (2010) first time recognised the legal status of sexual harassment in Pakistan (Jabbar & Imran, 2013; Sarwar & Nauman, 2011). The government of Pakistan made it

⁵ Sex Discrimination Act of 1975 in the United Kingdom, the Canadian Human Rights Act, the Sex Discrimination Acts of 1984 and 1992 in Australia (Barak, 1997) and the Hong Kong Sex Discrimination Ordinance of 1996 (Shaffer et al., 2000), Criminal laws of India and Tanzania, Laws targeting sexual harassment of Brazil, Belize, Philippines and Israel, Equality and sex discrimination laws of Japan and South Africa, National Human Right Legislation Fiji and New Zealand, Laws on safe working conditions of Netherlands (EEOC, 2006) and Protection against Harassment of women at the Workplace Act, 2010 (Gillni, 2010).

⁶ Ahmed, Maqsood & Hyder, 2009; Ahmed & Hyder, 2008; Batool, Sajid, & Shaheen, 2013; Caran et al., 2010; Cook & Glass, 2014; Ismail, 2010; Jabbar & Imran, 2013; Jonnergård, Stafsuudd, & Elg, 2010; Khan, Rehman & Dost, 2012; Malik & Farooqi, 2014; Peetz, Strachan & Troup, 2014; Raburu, 2015; Rehman & Tariq, 2012; Sandhu Singh & Batra, 2015).

mandatory for all the public, private small and big enterprises to implement it. On the other hand, Higher Education of Pakistan (HEC) made it necessary for Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) to apply it. Conversely, after the enforcement of this Act, sexual harassment is still a critical problem, which working women are facing (ADB, 2016). The HEC has also admitted that the Act, yet to be implemented in 80 % universities of Pakistan (HEC, 2013). Therefore, the lack of implementation of this Act is a big question mark on the efficacy of Government and HEC in HEIs. The unsafe working environment could seriously affect the performance of women, and it also enhances the discriminatory treatment. As many leading Newspapers of the country have reported the women (students and faculty) in universities are facing increasingly complex challenges to retaliate the sexual harassment encounter. Those who dare to report or speak against the sexual harassment experiences in universities, face the negligence and non-cooperation of administrations as well. Poor or lack of implementation of laws enhances the risk of harassment at the workplace for women as most of them are working in lower hierarchical positions and struggling to move up on the hierarchical ladder (Kahn, 2015; Morgan, 2000; Niaz, 2003).

1.7 Aim of the Research

Firstly, the present research seeks to address the gap in the existing literature, although, some literature is available globally on women's underrepresentation in senior management and academic positions (Atkinson, Casarico, & Voitchovsky, 2014; Bosquet; Combes, & Garc'ia-Peñalosa, 2014; Jayatilake et al. 2014; Morley & Crossouard 2016; Raburu, 2015; Sandhu, Singh & Batra, 2015), however almost no substantial study have ever been conducted on this issue in Pakistan (Ahmed & Hyder, 2009; Ismail, 2010; Jabbar & Imran, 2013; Khan, Rehman & Dost, 2012; Morley & Crossouard 2016).

Secondly, no reliable sources nationally have compiled the data about the employment status of women in higher education institutions and universities in Pakistan (Jabbar & Imran, 2013; Morley & Crossouard 2016). So, one of the aims of the research is to capture the baseline information about the representation and situation of women in academia, concerning their hierarchical positioning and socio-cultural and organisational barriers on the way to access the higher academic hierarchies.

Thirdly, the study would capture the details on the implementation of Workplace Act, 2010 in universities, as it is mandatory to instrument the Act. This is a significant and compelling reason to take a women's professional development into account (Bosquet, Combes, & Garc'ia-Peñalosa, 2014). Lack of safe working environment would undermine the competitiveness of women. Globally, there is need to capitalise the skills of women, valuing and encouraging women's professional growth and development (Leslie et al., 2015; Uche & Jack, 2014).

1.8 Research Questions

So, the emphasis of the current research is to capture the baseline information about the representation of women in universities and in case study respondents were working on lower hierarchical positions more often, then the barriers which could impede them on the way to access academic excellence and positions of power will be explored. The study will explore personal, organisational and societal barriers in this regard. The study also intended to measure the implementation of the Workplace Act (2010) in universities which were mandatory for all higher education institutions to implement to ensure a secure working environment for women.

1.9 Significance of the Research

The studies on gender and leadership have revealed several barriers for women seeking academic leadership and management positions (Atkinson, Casarico, & Voitchovsky, 2014; Benschop & Brouns, 2010; Black, & Turner 2016; Bruckmüller, 2014; Cook & Glass, 2014; Howe-Walsh & Turnbull, 2014; Holliday et al, 2014; King & Gómez 2008; Leslie et al, 2015; Machado-Taylor & Ozkanli 2013; Raburu, 2015; Taylor-Abdulai et al, 2014; Zeng 2011) in the world.

Nevertheless, this study would help to understand the societal, organisational and personal barriers faced by Pakistani women academics while exposing a significant impact of the cultural practice, patriarchal university culture, gender role expectations, exclusionary influential networking mechanism and facts about the implementation of Harassment Act.

This study would provide the baseline information about the representation of women at various hierarchical positions and Pakistani university culture, as there is a lack of concern for higher education leadership and excellence position of women. Recently a survey by Moorly & Crossouard (2015) in six countries in South Asia (Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka) found that gender was an absent category in term of higher education institutions policy. They found insufficient studies in the region regarding women and higher education leadership except for Pakistan, where studies were largely small-scale and unfunded postgraduate explorations.

One of the aims of this study is to explore the implantation of sexual harassment workplace Act (2010) in universities, as till 2010 discriminatory treatments in the workplace in Pakistan were not even recognised by the Law. Lack of implementation of Act would have a severe impact on experiences and reprisal. The unaddressed prevalence of harassment in university might work as an unofficial and unseen barrier leading to denied access to leadership and excellence positions. Similarly, this study will help to capture the baseline information regarding the level of awareness of the concerned population about their workplace rights and privileges. Unidentified and disregarded discriminatory practices could have a substantial impact on employees' performance as studies by McCrady (2012) and Loi, Loh, & Hine (2015) revealed that the participants of their studies were unable to understand harassment at first place and later failed to categorise harassment as discriminatory treatment.

Partial results of this study concerning the research questions and significance have already been published⁷.

⁷ Yousaf, R., & Schmiede, R. (2016). Harassment Act Implementation in Higher Education Institutions. *Open Journal of Leadership*, 5(1), 8-19.
doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ojl.2016.51002>

Yousaf, R., & Schmiede, R. (2016). Underrepresentation of Women at academic Excellence and Position of Power: Role of harassment and Glass Ceiling *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(2), 173-185. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/jss.2016.42023>

Yousaf, R., & Schmiede, R. (2017). Barriers to Women's Underrepresentation in Academic Excellence and Positions of Power. *Asian Journal of German and European studies (Springer Open)*, 2(2). doi:DOI 10.1186/s40856-017-0013-6

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL PARADIGMS

2.1 Underrepresentation of Women in a Debate

The literature review intended to explore the following answers:

1. What facts, figures and studies existed on the topic in the world?
2. What are the meaningful conclusions, concerns and challenges emphasised in studies to date?
3. Concurrently, literature also focused on, what knowledge, studies, policy recommendations and socio-cultural barriers and interventions exist on the topic in South Asia and Pakistan?

Studies on the contribution of women in organizational hierarchies have continuously pointed that despite the much-announced and promising equal employment opportunity claims by organizations globally across time, yet, women are under-represented, when it comes to climbing the hierarchical organizational ladder (Aiston & Jung, 2015; Catalyst, 2013; Grout, Park & Sonderegger, 2009; International Labour Organisation, 2013; Mayuzumi, 2015; Morley, 2013; Morley & Crossouard, 2016; Stanford Report, 2014; UCU, 2013).

However, the literature demonstrates that despite an increased presence of female employees in mid-management positions, executive positions and full professor positions across the globe continue to be male dominated (Benschop & Brouns, 2010; Johns, 2013; Liu, 2013; Mayuzumi, 2015; Oforiwaa & Broni, 2013; Robbins & Ollivier, 2007; Robbins & Simpson, 2009; Swab, 2013).

Gender issues based research on the impediments to women in climbing hierarchal ladder exhibits that at the managerial level, recruitment, hiring, and promotion processes are cognizant by images of the successful manager. These depictions are stereotypically masculine; the successful organisation and the successful leaders share many of the same characteristics, such as strength, aggressiveness, and competitiveness. Such stereotyping has

been documented for over three decades, constituting a significant barrier to women's entry into top level hierarchical positions of diverse organisations, including academia (Catalyst, 2013; Gottschall, 2010; Lühe, 2014; Morley, 2005).

The workplace has been male dominated for a long time. Women's career development is, however, generally different from men. It is often more complicated, more restricted and is often characterised by various career stages or patterns. Various pieces of research (EEOC, 2014) have indicated that:

1. Women are under-represented in a variety of fields and professions and enter low status and low paying jobs.
2. Women's abilities and talents are underused, i.e. they are less likely to advance to higher levels in their occupational fields.
3. Women are treated differently.

On the contrary, there is a critique of career development theories, which they were developed for men, and may not represent the nature of women's career (Schrieber, 1998). A male dominated environment requires women to imitate male traits to develop their careers. Masculine traits, to a degree, help women succeed in their careers by requiring women to adopt the male model and the male cultural standards.

Meanwhile, Opengart (2002) identified some factors that impact women's career development which is as follow:-

1. Career patterns that differ from hidden curriculum necessary for success in a male-dominated environment.
2. Gender role and social expectations,
3. Women's primary caregiving and homemaking responsibilities,

So, the following sections will highlight the status of women in various parts of the world in academia, career patterns that differ from the hidden curriculum, gender role and social expectations, socio-cultural hindrances, and finally will develop a conceptual model concerning the underrepresentation.

2.2 Situation of Women in Academia Worldwide

Women are well represented throughout the universities internationally as undergraduates, graduate students and increasingly as faculty and staff members. Yet their ranks and influence in leadership positions have not matched the growth (Morley, 2013; Stanford Report, 2014). Various studies on women academics reported that women's increasing number in the academia has not translated into a surge in the number of women holding leadership and academic excellence positions (Amondi, 2011; Committee on Maximizing the Potential of Women in Academic Science, Engineering (US), Committee on Science, & Public Policy, 2007; Campos 2016; Drakich & Stewart, 2007; Gender survey of UK Professoriate, 2013; Herald Report, 2015; Howe-Walsh, L., & Turnbull, S. 2016; Hult, Callister, 2006; Kakker & Bhandhari, 2015; UCU, 2013; Riegraf, Kirsch-Auwärter, & Müller, 2010, Robbins & Simpson, 2009).

Though, for long, women in general, were not allowed to enrol and then employed in educational institutions in developing and developed countries. Almost all over the world, universities were designed by men, for male students and faculty. Working structures such as working hours were the lifestyles of men, who quite often had women at home to care for them, be it a wife, mother, sister, or housekeeper. In many countries, even when there were chances to hire more women in academic institutions, and there were high chances of their promotion to a higher echelon, it was resisted, then (in the 1960s) that was a time when there was an extensive faculty hiring in many parts of today's developed world. At that point, despite the fact, the number of full-time faculty members increased by more than 10,000 positions. However, there was a decline in the number of female faculty members (Subramaniam, Arumugam, & Abu Baker Akeel, Drakich, 2014; Stewart, 2007).

In the following section, the situation of women academics from developed to developing world step by step will be discussed.

2.2.1 Women in America

The situation of women's underrepresentation at academic excellence and positions of power has no longer changed even today in the most developed parts of the world. A wide

gender gap has persisted over the years at all levels of academic disciplines throughout the world. Although women have made significant advances in their participation in higher education (Al-Shawi & Aldahwi, 2013; Carr et al., 2015; Gardner & Blackstone, 2013; Harris & Leberman, 2011) however, they are still underrepresented in higher grades (Al-Shawi and Aldahwi, 2013; Carr et al, 2015; Swab, 2013; Zeng, 2011).

This problem is most acute at the senior-most levels of academic and professional hierarchies. A survey has been conducted in the USA to look at the representation of women faculty in the upper echelons of hierarchy between the period of 1993-2013, the report showed that women comprised 26.7 percent of the faculty in 2013, compared with 22.6 percent in 2003 and 15.7 percent in 1993. Whereas, by the end of 2013, the Stanford professoriate reached 2,043, including 1,498 men and 545 women (Stanford Report, 2014). Similarly, Kathleen et al. (2013) conducted research to add to the debate about the reasons of women's underrepresentation at the higher ranks of the academia. Their study endorsed that women increasingly are awarded PhDs. In 2009, in the United States, women earned almost 47 percent of all doctoral degrees despite women's educational attainment; they are far more likely than men to leave academic careers. Women comprise declining percentages of the professoriate in the United States when comparing their proportions of assistant, associate, and full Professors (Kathleen et al., 2013). In the United States, women's underrepresentation along the academic career is present also in fields that have had a significant proportion of female PhDs for 30 years (Castillo, Grazzi & Tacsir, 2014). Although in 2009 there were 28 % Professors in the USA, this proportion is higher than Europe (ECU, 2013).

2.2.2 Women in Europe

The progress of women in Europe concerning men, it is found that women at all levels of education far worse than their male counterparts who have comparable education credentials. Although, the gender gap closes as the educational attainment rises from low to high, even when we compare the highest professional group, higher educated men still far better than higher educated women. One key reason for these gender differences is the different type of educational fields that men and women opt to study. Women are underrepresented in the educational fields that are generally, and the more classically male

oriented, i.e. Engineering, Science, Manufacturing, and Construction, or Agriculture. Conversely, women are overrepresented in all other types of Education, and particularly Teaching and Education, Humanities and Arts, Social Sciences, Business and Law, and Services (European Commission, 2014).

Women's academic career in Europe evidently has categorised by high vertical segregation. In 2010, the proportion of female students (55 %) and graduates (59 %) exceeded that of male students, whereas, women represented only 44% of Lecturers/Instructor (Grade C), 37 % of Associate Professor (Grade B) and 20 % of Full Professor (Grade A) academic staff. The under-representation of women is even more striking in the field of Science and Engineering. Women represented 32 % of academic Grade C personnel, 23percent of Grade B and just 1percent of Grade A personnel. The proportion of women among full professors was highest in the Humanities (28.4 %) and the Social Sciences (19.4 %), respectively, lowest in Engineering and Technology, i.e. 7.9 %.

Although, if we compare the average proportion of women on higher hierarchical levels, there are huge disparities. For instance, in Scottish universities the percentage of female Professors is 21.8 % whereas the women population in universities is 45 %, this proportion is slightly better than 2010-11 when this proportion was 18.3 percent (Herald Report, 2015).

Similarly, the She Figures (EC, 2012) reported that women represent only 20 % of full professors and 15.5 % of heads of institutions in the Higher Education sector in the European Union (European Commission, 2012). Meanwhile, the statistic from Researchers' Report Germany, (2013) has stated that in 2010, the percentage of women Professors (grade A) academic staff was 14.6 % in Germany and in EU the average was 19.8 %. Although, a programme promoting outstanding women researchers in Germany was running since 2008 (till 2017) and due to its effectiveness 262 additional women professors have been appointed in higher education institutions (Researchers' Report Germany, 2013).

Simultaneously, the figure from Statistisches Bundesamt, (2012) reported the proportion of female professors in Germany was only 19 % in 2010, although the focus on the appointment of women Professors has been triggered since 1990 (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2012). The studies from Germany have pointed that this situation is very discouraging that despite the women's achievements in higher education – more than

50percent of university graduates in Germany are female. Still, the proportion of women in top hierarchical positions in science is relatively small and ‘gets more distinct on the higher rungs of the academic career ladder (Lühe, 2014).

Concerning Europe, Sweden is usually described exceptionally with overall high rankings on gender equality and has even earned the reputation as a ‘pioneer in the gender equality area’ (HSV, 2011). For many years, Sweden has pursued an ambitious policy to promote gender equality in the higher education domain. However, there is still a long way to go, before the goal of gender equality is achieved, in Swedish higher education. Compared with other Europe, the Swedish higher education sector is characterised by the ‘leaky pipeline’ (each stage of the academic hierarchy, especially high on the ladder more women leave the academia) phenomenon (European Commission, 2012). Although, as many women as men get a doctoral degree, but the only 22 % of the professors were women, till 2011 (Statistics Sweden, 2012). That shows that though, Sweden is slightly higher on the European average when it comes to women’s representation in the grade A level positions (European Commission, 2012). However, men are still appointed to professors to a greater extent than women.

Similarly, the female’s proportion of University staffs in Greece and Turkey is also lower compared to males. The percentage of women in Turkish academia is 40.7 %, and in Greek, academia is 29.3 %, it is evident, the proportion of Professor, (Grade A) and Associate Professor (Grade B) in Turkey are higher than Greece. Although, in both countries, lower grades like Lecturer or Instructor have similar proportionate of women academics. At the same time, the female proportion per academic field varies very much between Turkish and Greece. The greater female percentage in Turkey is 62.6 % in Health Sciences, followed by 39.8 % in Agriculture. The higher female rate in Greece is 48 % in education, followed by 47.9 % in Humanities (Giannoula, 2014).

Women decision making positions: While focusing on the proportion of women in decision-making positions in higher education institution in EU-27. It was discovered that women headed only 15.5 % of institutions in the higher education sector, and just 10 % of universities had a female Rector and 36% of board members were women in 2010, whereas in 2007 they represented only 22 % (European Commission, 2012). This proportion varies between 27 % in Sweden (in Norway, not an EU Member State, the percentage is highest at

32 %) and 6.5 % in France. The seven countries where it is highest (20 % or above) are, in the EU, Sweden, Finland, Italy, Latvia, and Estonia and, for the non-EU members, Norway and Iceland. By contrast, it is the lowest (under 10 %) in Slovakia, Hungary, Romania, Portugal, and France, and, among non-EU members, Turkey and Montenegro.

Pay Gap: Despite other inequalities, even disparities in the pay and pay gaps between men and women are also visible in the EU States. The women's gross hourly earnings were on average 16.4% below those of men in the European Union (EU- 28) and 16.6 % in the Euro area (EA -17). Across the Member States, the gender pay gap varied by 26.7 percentage points, ranging from 3.2 % in Slovenia to 29.9 % in Estonia (Eurostate, 2015).

Despite the difference between women and men proportion at various hierarchical levels, there was the pay gap between them even at the same hierarchical level. The principle of equal remuneration for men and women for work of equal value is enshrined in the EU Treaties. The gender pay gap (the average difference between men's and women's hourly gross earnings across the economy as a whole) in the EU remains at 17.8 %, with Estonia at 30.9 %, the Czech Republic at 26.2 %, Austria at 25.5%, and Germany at 23.2 % against Italy at 4.9 %, Slovenia at 8.5 %, and Belgium and Romania in 9 % (European Union, 2012).

Women's under-representation at the highest hierarchical levels of the academic career severely hampers their chances of being at the head of universities or institutions of higher education (Gago & Macias, 2014). The data from Europe show that only a small proportion of women are the head of institutions in the higher education sector or decision-making committees. The small proportion of women at decision-making positions implies considerable difficulties for young women in academia to find female role models, and thus to identify with the highest levels of academic life. Furthermore, the weak presence of women in high-power positions, and male dominance could generate biases (European Commission, 2012).

The glass ceiling index⁸ stood at 1.8 in the EU-27 in 2010 pointing towards slow progress since 2004 when the index stood at 1.9 the higher the score, the thicker the ceiling (European Commission, 2012).

⁸ The Glass Ceiling Index (GCI) measures the relative chance for women, as compared with men, of reaching a top position. The GCI compares the proportion of women in grade A

2.2.3 Women in the United Kingdom

The situation in the United Kingdom (UK) was similar to European Union (EU) member States and American academia; overall women have less representation in the upper echelons of the academic hierarchy (Black, & Turner 2016). The UK has 20.5 % women professors (ECU, 2013).

A report published by the University College Union (UCU) 2013 cautions that the current pace of change will take almost 40 years for the proportion of female Professors to reach the same level as the percentage of female staff in UK universities. Just one in five Professors is women, despite making up almost half the non-professorial academic workforce. Women make up 46.8 % (76,500) of non-professorial academic staff across all UK higher education institutions, but only 19.8 % (3450) of the professoriate, so there is a representation gap of 4,710 female professors. In 159 of Britain's 164 higher education institutions, women's representation at professorial grade is proportionally lower than their representation at all other academic ranks. The gender pay gap for full-time employees in the professoriate fluctuated between 2003/4 to 2010/11 around 6 % for males. On average, female professors earn 6.3 % (£4,828) less than their male counterparts (UCU, 2013).

According to the statistics of Times Higher Education (2012) all over the UK on average, one in five professors is female. However, several universities are falling well short

positions (equivalent to Full Professors in most countries) to the proportion of women in academia (grade A, B, and C), indicating the opportunity, or lack of it, for women to move up the hierarchical ladder in their profession. A GCI of 1 indicates that there is no difference between women and men being promoted. A score of less than 1 means that women are over-represented at grade A level and a GCI score of more than 1 points towards a Glass Ceiling Effect, meaning that women are underrepresented in grade A positions. In other words, the interpretation of the GCI is that the higher the value, the thicker the Glass Ceiling and the more difficult it is for women to move into a higher position (European Commission 2012).

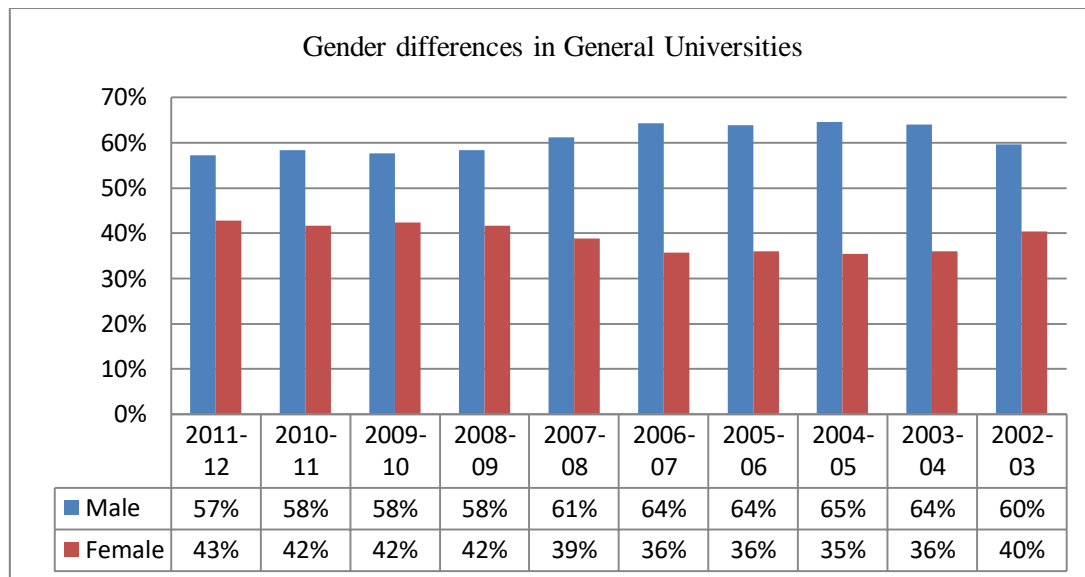
of that low benchmark. At Bournemouth University, which is the second last in gender equality of women professoriate list, the figure has been just three out of 30 professors, which is only 8.7 %, while at the University of Bath, it was 18 out of 163 (10.8 %). Whereas at a few of the world's top ranked institutes like Imperial College London the proportion was 14.1 % in 2011-12, and at the University of Cambridge it was 15.6 %. On the other hand, universities specialising in Arts and Humanities have a few women Professors and endorsing the long -standing concept that women are less successful in the sciences. It was evident the lack of female Professors has been particularly evident in Science-based subjects (Gender survey of UK professoriate, 2013; Peetz, Strachan & Troup, 2014).

2.2.4 Women in Pakistan

Women in Pakistan have worked in gendered academic institutions for long. However, they were underrepresented in universities, as inherently universities were masculine in nature. Besides, the discourse of academic meritocracy may also be masculine and reproduce masculine practices as the typical career path in academia is structured according to a male perception of success. Therefore keeping the track record of women academic success might not be significant (Bird Litt, & Wang, 2004; Brink Benschop & Brouns, 2010; Ostrow, 2002; Remler and Perma, 2009).

As far as the statistics about the women in academia in Pakistan are concerned, according to the Punjab Development Statistics (2013) in 2002-03 there were only 708 (total 1753, 40.3 %) female teaching staff working at various hierarchical levels in general universities of the Punjab (one of the biggest populous province of Pakistan). However, till 2011-12 the number of teaching staff in universities has raised to 2132 (42.8 %) from 4976 in universities' of the Punjab and the majority of the women working at lower hierarchical levels. Although, unfortunately, the data regarding the number of women working in various hierarchical positions and fields in universities are yet to compile. The following graph shows the gender difference of academic staff in general universities of Punjab from 2002-03 to 2011-12 which lists the proportions of female staff is much lower than male staff.

Figure 5: Gender Segregated Academic Staff in General Universities of Punjab



Source: Punjab Development Statistic (2013)

The proportion of women in the upper echelons of academia or institutional hierarchy was concerned; it was assumed that it would be far more challenging than developed world (Hausmann, Tyson & Zahidi, 2012). Although, there is a lack of statistical data on women leadership in higher education institutions in the South Asian region, only available survey (which included Pakistan as well) of women academics in Commonwealth Universities by Singh (2008) gives an overview of the region. According to the Singh (2008) in Pakistan, there were 19.7 % female professors in 2006 compared with 23 % in the year 2000. Similarly, there were 18.5 % female professors in India in 2006 compared with 18 % in 2000. Whereas the proportion of women professors in Sri Lanka was highest in the region, it was 24.5 % in 2006 compared with 21.5 % in 2000. Despite the fact the South Asian region is categorised as one of the least gender sensitive in the world, somehow the proportion of women professors in South Asia is mirroring the developed countries' statistics of women professor in the comparable period. For instance, in 2009 there were 19 % of professors in the UK, 20 % in Norway, and 28 % in the USA, 20 % in the European Union (ECU, 2013; Moorly & Crossouard 2015; Morley, 2013). These similarities might raise questions about the effectiveness of gender equality campaigns worldwide.

2.2.5 Women in Academia: Conclusion

The section above has highlighted that despite the higher enrollment and academic achievement of women in universities, they hugely under- represented in academic excellence and positions of power (Equal Employment Opportunities Commission, 2014; Hausmann, Tyson & Zahidi, 2012).

In this scenario, it becomes necessary to explore that despite higher enrollment and academic achievement of women in universities, why there is a huge gap for women in academic excellence and positions of power (Hausmann, Tyson & Zahidi, 2012). Some studies have been conducted on the gender inequality, prevalence of glass ceiling and lower presence of women in upper echelon of academia, and they found that women have been experiencing exploitation, inequality and many visible and invisible barriers, including harassment, on their way to climbing the hierarchical ladder (Ahmed & Hyder, 2009, Arab Naz et al., 2013; Ismail, 2010; Jabbar & Imran, 2013; Khan, Rehman & Dost, 2012).

The following section focuses on the reasons for women's underrepresentation at academic excellence and positions of power.

2.3 Explanation of Women's Underrepresentation

Some women may advance to the top of the middle management and academic hierarchy but are unable to pass through the barriers (Amondi, 2011; Cochran et al., 2013; Fox and Xiao, 2013; Gardner and Blackstone, 2013; Harris and Leberman, 2012; Hult and Callister, 2006; Helen, 2014; Kakker & Bhandhari, 2015; Machado-Taylor & Özkanli, 2013; Nemoto, 2013).

These barriers might restrict them to reach the top of hierarchical levels, with many other suppressing factors, the glass ceiling could be a major factor which might be contributing to the underrepresentation of women at academic excellence and positions of power in universities.

2.3.1 Glass Ceiling

The word ‘ceiling’ implies there is a limitation, preventing career growth and ‘glass’ represent transparent and unseen. The glass ceiling (GC) is a form of discrimination that is affecting women’s lack of access to power and status in organisations. The term "the glass ceiling" refers to the invisible barrier, stated that "the higher the post, the fewer the women." As an "invisible" barrier, the glass ceiling is hard to eradicate through legislation. According to Cornell University, the “glass ceiling” is a metaphor first used by Nora Frenkiel in *Adweek* in March 1984 to explain the subtle, invisible obstacles women face after they attain mid-management positions. Despite the professional eligibilities and ample opportunities, female employees are not aptly represented in the highest corridors of organizational powers (Altman, 2004; Bell & Bentley, 2005; Chi and Li, 2007; Cook & Glass, 2014; Dehaghani, Cholmaghani, & Goli, 2013; Ghaus, 2013; Pillai, Prasad & Thomas, 2011; Kensbock et al., 2013; Schwanke, 2013).

The U.S. Glass Ceiling Commission remarks the glass ceiling effect is a transparent unbreakable barrier that keeps the minorities and women from rising to the upper rungs of the corporate ladder, despite their qualifications and achievement (as cited in Mattis 2004).

Therefore, this phenomenon in organisational settings implicitly conveys the opportunity to get promoted to the higher echelons in the corridors of organisational power and authority is not as easy as being absorbed into the organisational fraternity. Moreover, the women find it nearly impossible to break the gender prejudice and marginalisation in the corridors of institutional powers. Reports by international agencies disclose that participation of women in the labour market is on the rise (ILO, 2011). More women are entering the job market (ILO, 2011) in an unprecedented manner due to globalisation and changing perceptions of women’s economic and productive engagement. A myriad of studies across the world ⁹ disclosed that men primarily hold most of the top management positions. Female

⁹ Stanford report 2014, Liu 2013, Oforiwaa & Afful-Broni 2013, Benschop & Brouns 2010, Catalyst 2013, Gender survey of UK professoriate, 2013, UCU 2013, Machado-Taylor & Özkanli 2013, Akpinar-Sposito 2013, International Labour Organisation 2012, Robbins et al. 2010, Spoor & Schmitt 2011, Grout, Park & Sonderegger 2009, Ceci, Williams & Barnett

head/managers, if they can grasp the position, tend to be concentrated in lower leadership positions and hold less authority and discretionary power than men, which is termed as a labyrinth of leadership by Eagly & Carli (2007). On the contrary, those who somehow manage to achieve central hierarchical positions may have to pay the cost of success (Grout et al., 2009).

The gender dimension of the glass ceiling is most often applied in organisations where the upper echelons of power are prejudiced in favour of men, and the women counterparts are sidelined in the race to organisational hierarchies. Women hold positions on corporate boards, are public officials, and run larger companies. Despite these accomplishments, the scarcity of women at the highest levels of employment is well established. The glass ceiling can describe this lack of progress.

The glass ceiling could also refer to the “artificial barriers to the advancement of women and minorities.” It is an invisible barrier based on attitudinal or organisational bias and discrimination that prevents the minorities and women from rising the corporate ladder and into high-level management positions, regardless of their qualifications and achievements. A glass ceiling inequality represents a gender “that is not explained by other job-relevant characteristics of the employee,” “glass ceiling is greater at higher levels of an outcome than at lower levels of an outcome (Hymowitz and Schellhardt, 1986; Kensbock et al., 2013).

It can also be described as “phenomenon of gender stratification”. Meanwhile few women in the workforce are shattering the glass ceiling to reach senior management positions in the public sector. Nevertheless, women managers tend to be evaluated less favourably, receive less support from their peers, are excluded from critical networks, and receive greater scrutiny and criticism, even when performing the same leadership roles as men (Palus and Bowling, 2011; Riccucci, 2009).

Informal networking and mentoring are frequently suggested as means of increasing the numbers of executive women (FGCC, 1997). Further, networking and mentoring offered

2009, Wilson 2008, Robbins & Olliver 2007, Equal Employment Opportunities Commission 2006, Drakich & Stewart 2007, Mason 2007, CAUT 2006, AAUP, 2006, Reinhold 2005, Arfken, Bellar & Helms 2004, AUT, 2004, Selmer & Leung 2003.

by executive men can be less fruitful and more problematic for the junior women, who may be assumed to be sexually involved with their mentors. In sum, the relative lack of women managers and executives, the support roles many female workers provide to men workers and occupational sex segregation all facilitate sexual harassment. Women who work for male supervisors or managers' report greater harassment and perceive their organisations as being more tolerant of harassment, (2) women rarely perpetrate harassment, (3) women view harassing behaviours differently from men (Bell, 2002; Scott and Martin, 2006).

Women do not fit the image of the (masculine) leader. If women's behaviour seems too assertive and masculine, they may be seen as competent but not likeable; if their behaviour is too feminine, they may be seen as likeable, but incompetent (Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013; Eagly & Carli, 2007). Also, women are encouraged to work in departments that have fewer developmental opportunities (assistants, secretaries, and health workers) or do not translate to executive advancement (Guerrero et al., 2011; Kilgour, 2012). Although prejudices and discrimination towards women in the workforce have diminished, they still exist strongly for women in senior positions (Akpinar –Sposito, 2013; Bell, 2002; Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013).

It is also found that women are less likely to have tenure and more likely to hold part-time and limited-term appointments and to experience a pay gap (AAUP, 2006; AUT, 2004; Benschop & Jansen, 2013; CAUT, 2006; Drakich & Stewart, 2007; Equal Employment Opportunities Commission, 2007; Grund, 2014; Johns, 2013; Liu, 2013; Mason & Ekman, 2007; Obaapanin & Broni, 2013; Robbins & Simpson, 2009; Stanford Report, 2014; Side & Robbins, 2007; Spoor & Schmitt, 2011; Wilson, 2008).

The Catalyst (2013) study of the US and European business leaders, also found that women leaders have to work harder than men at the same corporate levels to be perceived as equally competent and to receive the same levels of rewards. This stereotyping and discrimination are often unrecognised, even as it enters into assessments of candidates for hiring or promotion (Mattis, 2004). For instance, in Swedish banks in the 1980s, women and men in the same entry level job classification were assigned to different duties by their supervisors, men had commitments that led to a promotion, women did not (Acker, 2006; Akpinar –Sposito, 2013; Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013).

The glass ceiling has remained a modern-day issue, with many surveys and reports being undertaken internationally (Al-Manasra, 2013; Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013; Bruckmüller, 2014; Catalyst, 2013; Chi & Li, 2007; Cocchio, 2009; Cook & Glass, 2014; Dehaghani, Cholmaghani, & Goli, 2013; European Commission, 2013; Kilgour, 2012; Omotayo et al, 2013; Osibanjo et al, 2013; Singh & Vinnicombe, 2004; Taylor-Abdulai et al, 2014). So, the following section will discuss how the glass ceiling practices in organisations.

2.3.2 Glass Ceiling Practices

The glass ceiling is manifested in multiple ways: informal recruitment practices that fail to recruit women, lack of opportunities for training and mentorship, exclusion from informal networks, menial assignments rather than challenging tasks that would progress their careers, wage gaps between men and women despite comparable work, and placement in jobs that have very little advancement opportunities. Gender stereotypes, male-dominated structures, and discrimination have placed barriers to progress for women. Not only that, there is substantial evidence of the under-representation of women in leadership positions in many countries all over the world¹⁰. This literature has pointed that there are many barriers, women are facing when they are trying to climb the hierarchical ladder. Evidence suggests that they may face invisible barriers preventing their rise in leadership positions. The metaphor used to implicate this situation is called ‘GC’ Subsequent metaphors such as “glass

¹⁰ Sri Lanka (Bombuwela & De Alwis 2013), Japan (Nemoto 2013), India (Namita & Neha 2014 ,Chaudhuri 2010), Iran (Dehaghani, Cholmaghani, & Goli, 2013),Pakistan (Jabbar & Imran 2013, Batool, Sajid & Shaheen 2013, Hasan & Mustafa 2013),Malaysia (Sharif 2015),Australia (Davidson & Burke 2012; Maginn, 2010; Still, 2006), New Zealand (Harris & Leberman 2012), China (Tan, 2008), France (Barnet-Verzat & Wolff, 2008), Sweden (Peterson 2015), South Africa (Booyesen & Nkomo, 2010; Mathur-Helm, 2006), United Kingdom (Davidson & Burke 2012; Thomson, Graham & Lloyd 2008) Canada (Cocchio 2009) and United States (Davis & Maldonado 2015,Gago & Macias 2013,Eagly & Carli, 2007, Fassinger, 2008).

elevators’’ and ‘‘glass cliffs’’ refer to the greater scrutiny and criticism that women may have to face in leadership roles (Peterson, 2015; Ryan & Haslam, 2005).

Researchers found there are different kinds of GC barriers such as different pay for comparable work (FGCC, 1995), sexual, ethnic, racial, religious discrimination or harassment in the workplace, the prevailing culture of many businesses, lack of family-friendly workplace policies (Acker, 2006). Several other factors that impede the advancement of women in the senior positions has been human capital barriers (lack of education, finances, resources, and experience); gender-based stereotypes; discrimination and sexual harassment differences in communication styles; exclusion from informal networks; limited management support for work/life programs; lack of mentors and role-models; occupational sex segregation; and attitudinal and organizational biases (Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013; Croson & Gneezy, 2009; Hannum et al, 2015; Vinkenburg et al., 2011).

2.4 Glass Ceiling and Underrepresentation of Women in Pakistan

In Pakistan and other countries where women who are significantly working on lower organizational level and having least organizational power, may be more vulnerable to discriminatory treatments (Ali & Kramar, 2014; Caran et al, 2010; Chaudhuri, 2010; Faiza, 2013; Human Rights Report, 2013; Singh & Gupta, 2013; Zakar, Zakar & Kramer, 2011). Further, in these lower status positions, and many others, that women occupy, women are more likely to be supervised or managed by men than by women (Myrtle et al., 2002), which increases the risk, that they could be discriminated, maltreated by male supervisors, if they do not comply with (Begum Sadaquat & Sheikh, 2011; Mahpara & Qurra-tul-ain, 2011; Sattar, Imtiaz & Qasim, 2013). Women in Pakistan may face many difficulties in accessing decision-making positions at the local, provincial and national levels, and are excluded from fundamental political, social and economic consultative processes (Mehdi, 2011; Rind, 2011).

Male dominance and patriarchal attitudes in Pakistan might have hindered women’s growth, development, and empowerment in numerous ways (Chaudhuri, 2010; Qureshi, 2013; Zakar, Zakar & Kramer, 2011). Male employers and employees may have some prejudices, and social customs may reinforce different types of roles for men and women. The male’s role is expected to be the main earner, that is, ‘head of the household’ and the

female role is supposed to be a mother and a housewife and their primary assignments are purely domestic, whereas professional duties and accomplishment are secondary. For example, it is assumed that all women in society are living with a man, their husband, father, brother and/or any male head. The women's wage is seen as a supplement to the men's wage, and therefore their lower pay and a lower position in the labour market is not regarded as problematic by the society (Faiza, 2013; Kaya, 2009). Simultaneously, women would be subject to severe scrutiny due to family and parenting responsibilities, excluded from opportunity and broader networks, may experience hegemonic practices as various researchers in Pakistan also showed that almost all women had been harassed once in their life at workplace and university premises and/or on their way to work (Ahmed, 1998; AASHA, 2011; Ali & Kramar, 2014; Anila, 1998; Avan bi, 2006; Chaudhuri, 2010; Human Rights Report, 2013; HRCP, 2000; Jabbar & Imran, 2013; Kashif, Ali & Kelly, 2013; Mahmood & Ahmed, 2011; Mumtaz et al, 2003; Nauman & Abbasi, 2014; Nasir & Shaukat, 2013; Niaz, 2003; Punjab development Statistic, 2013; Sarwar and Nauman, 2011; Sattar, Imtiaz & Qasim, 2013; Subhani, 2012; Weiss, 2012).

The argument constructed based on cited literature (Anderson, Fryer & Holt, 2006; Arfken, Bellar & Helmes, 2004; Bell, McLaughlin & Sequeira, 2002; Bose & Whaley, 2001; Cochran et al, 2013; D'Cruz & Rayner, 2013; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Gago & Macias, 2013; Grout, et al. 2009; Grund, 2014; Luthar & Luthar, 2007; Reinhold, 2005; Reskin, 1999; Roos & Gatta, 2001; Selmer & Leung, 2003; Vinkenburg et al., 2011; Zeng, 2008) that women could face diverse visible, invisible, formal, informal and structured barriers, which might prohibit them to climb the hierarchical ladder in Pakistan (Ahmed & Hyder, 2008; Batool, Sajid & Shaheen, 2013; Jabbar & Imran, 2013; Nauman & Abbasi, 2014; Sattar, Imtiaz & Qasim, 2013; Shakir & Siddiqui, 2014).

2.5 Barriers for Women in Academia: Theoretical Perspectives

Around the world, women make the full-time workforce (Wirth, 2001), yet they are under-represented in the top hierarchy in most of the countries (Davidson & Burke, 2012; Prokos & Padavic, 2002; Wirth, 2001). There are two important points of views on women's less representation in the upper echelon of academia; Firstly, women do not have the skills or

the interests or time to do serious scholarly work. Secondly, men intentionally discriminate them because they do not want to share power.

These beliefs still exist and might need to be carefully monitored to prevent continuing inequalities in access to positions of influence and academic excellence. However, it is not as simple as shows rather; some more subtle dynamics at work exist on the societal, organisational and individual level (Acker, 2009; Bailyn, 2003; Batool, Sajid & Shaheen, 2013; Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013).

The following section aims to discuss personal, organisational and societal, barriers concerning the theoretical perspectives, which would help to understand the phenomena in detail:-

2.6 Personal Barriers

There are predictably some striking differences, or "gaps" between men and women's academic responsibilities, household duties, and family situations. Many academic women believe that they have disproportionate responsibilities for service in their departments. As reported in Ivory Towers audits for 2004-06, academic women in Canada also tend to put in longer hours than their male counterparts for childcare, housework, and elderly care (Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013; Robbins & Simpson, 2009; Side & Robbins, 2007).

Some women sacrifice their careers to be wives and mothers. Many women take maternity leaves or request shorter work days to take care of their children. These parenting challenges can hinder their chances of being considered for promotions. There may be simple answers to these trends, such as women are more likely to have their careers interrupted by parental leaves (Acker & Armenti, 2004), or are unable to stay long due to home and parenting responsibilities, or are hired with less experience than men.

Women are treated not only differently rather unequally in the workplace (McDonald et al., 2011) as Acker (2009) cited one woman's experience in his study, who described herself as 'the person... who can be called on to do whatever needs to be done' and refers to herself 'as a departmental resource, like the fire extinguisher'. Similar findings by D'Cruz & Rayner (2013) revealed that women in academics often experienced that male senior colleague passes the paper marking or trivial tasks that come on their way to women staff.

Some experts may categorise the possible low hierarchical position of women as a selection of occupations which are “sticky-floor” position - jobs in which employees usually remain stuck at the lowest levels. These positions include human resource and administrative assistant roles, where the chances of being promoted to top management are slim (Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013).

There are some perceptions that genetically women are inferior and do not have capabilities to be engaged in serious scholarly work. As remarked by Larry Summers’s (Ex-president of Harvard University in 2005), that “women scientists simply do not work hard enough and/or are genetically inferior, hence resulted in their low representation at top research institutions” (Summers, 2005). On the contrary, a subsequent review of studies of brain structure and function, human cognitive development, and human evolution shows there are no significant biological differences between men and women that can account for the lower representation of women in faculty and leadership positions (Shalala et al., 2006).

Moreover, there is another widespread perception that women tend to publish less than men. Whereas, a study by Virginia Valian has found that what women publish, is of higher quality, as measured by the number of times their work more cited by other scholars in their field. Even when productivity is controlled for, women earn less and achieve tenure more slowly than men because their achievements tend to be less recognised (McDonald et al., 2011; Robbins & Simpson, 2009; Shalala et al., 2006; Valian, 1999).

2.7 Organisational Barriers

Once women have successfully found their way into the workforce and landed in a position in their desired organisation, other types of discrimination become apparent. Along with some gender and societal concrete barriers, women also experience quite a few organisational barriers at workplaces. In the 1970s, Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1977) wrote about the adverse effects that can occur when women or minorities are tokens in their departments. When women represent less than 15 - 20 percent of a department they are more likely to feel the effects of gender stereotyping. Even the situation has no longer changed today (Batoool, Sajid & Shaheen, 2013; Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013; Schwanke 2013).

2.7.1 Social Capital

Bourdieu's concept of **social capital** could be significant to discuss here concerning the underrepresentation of women in academia. Bourdieu explained social capital enhances one's ability to advance in the competition between individuals. Advantageous relationships can secure material or symbolic 'profit', which establishes a concrete base for the growth of solidarity (Bourdieu, 1986: 249). The term 'profit' refers to the stream of benefits that result from participation in groups, Bourdieu suggests that group members enjoy certain privileges they have not necessarily earned. This point is important because it proposes the existence of a non-meritocratic academic reality, where promotion is a function of social networking rather than of one's merit.

Viewed from Bourdieu's perspective, social capital can be a powerful personal asset that gives individual's access to useful resources and can improve their position. Bourdieu stresses that social capital benefit is unequally distributed across society and that they tend to accumulate in certain social groups, this being strongly associated with the division of power in that society or organisation. Social capital as a collective asset can be drawn upon to advance a social group's interest. Bourdieu views social capital as the investment strategy of the members of the privileged class (as a group or network) in their effort to reproduce group solidarity and its domination. We can assume that academics with high social capital have meant to exclude others and have an interest in doing so.

The academia and university organisations generally governed by hierarchical systems, the policies and activities determined by the top individuals and with a culture built on competition for economic (hierarchical level, pay plans), social (networking, power, authority), and symbolic (visibility, scientific recognition and prestige/honour) capital, as per Bourdieu's (1986) terminology. Attitudes, behavioural dispositions or orientations, skills and capabilities are indicators of the gender position of individuals and the 'habitus' (Bourdieu, 1990) in which they have been raised. In other words, they reflect gendered social and cultural realities.

However, sometimes when women break such stereotypical expected roles of women and came into the labour market to prove, that they are equally competent, they might lack

social capital of networks (exclusion from broader networking opportunities, lack of mentors, lack of supervising activities), as a consequence they may experience barriers and hurdles for further progress in the labour market. August & Waltman (2004) wrote that it might not be enough to recruit and hire more women, once hired merely; women faculty must be retained by fostering a satisfying work environment in which they can perform well and prosper. In other words, just allowing women faculty to meet criteria for academic success, on standards that have been defined by men, which represent their lifestyle, does not necessarily guarantee equality. Though this explanation of gender equality has represented an awareness of people's lives outside of their work and stressed to accommodate their special needs (Acker, 2006; Amondi, 2011; Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013; Ghaus, 2013; Faiza, 2013; Schwanke, 2013).

2.7.2 Hegemonic Masculinities

Connell's well-known theory of Hegemonic Masculinity (1987) similarly emphasises the intersection of gender and power, providing a broad sociological framework for understanding that society privileges a single version of masculinity above all others, which guarantees the dominant position of men and the subordination of women. Masculinity is defined as simultaneously a place in gender relations, the practice through which men and women engage that place in gender, and the effects of these practices in physical experience, personality and culture (Connell, 1995). Connell's theory views, gender as a social institution as much as an individual characteristic (Lorber, 1994; Martin, 2004). As such, gender helps people meet their basic needs by shaping how they organise themselves in families, schools, the workplace, and other institutions. While any number of possible gender ideologies could be invoked to structure social interactions, it is the ideals of 'Hegemonic Masculinity' that shape norms of gendered interaction. Connell, MacKinnon, Martin, and Quinn all points to the conclusion that people who cannot or will not conform to standards of hegemonic masculinity (i.e. women) will be vulnerable to workplace harassment. Berdahl reconceptualises sexual harassment as sex-based harassment, defined as "behaviour that derogates, demeans, or humiliates an individual based on that individual's sex". Sex-based harassment is not driven by sexual desire, but rather by an underlying motivation to protect

sex-based social standing. As a result, targets of sex-based harassment are most likely to be women who threaten men's status. Berdahl (2007) found that women with stereotypically masculine personalities (assertive, dominant, and independent) were more likely than other women to experience harassment at school, among friends, or at work (Berdahl, 2007; McLaughlin, Uggen, and Blackstone, 2009).

2.7.3 Discriminatory Practices

According to some researchers a contributing factor to women's low success in the labour market is sexual harassment at workplace (Anila, 1998; Barry, Berg, & Chandler, 2006; Guerrier & Amel, 2004; Escartín, Salin, & Rodríguez-Carballeira, 2011; Haarr and Morash, 2013; Hrcp, 2000; ILO, 2001; Karega, 2002; Konrad & Gutek, 1986; Lockwood et al, 2007; Luthar & Luthar, 2007; McDonald, 2012; Neall & Tuckey, 2014; Okechukwu et al, 2014; Pollard, 2006; Sandhu, Singh & Batra, 2015; Scott & Martin, 2006; Weiss, 2012).

This vision of gender and workplace power labelled as the "power-threat" model, which suggests that women who pose a greater threat to male dominance are more likely targets of harassment. There is more significant support for the paradoxical "power-threat" model, in which women in positions of power -- at the organisational or societal level -- are most likely to face harassment. However, when women can crack the glass ceiling (Cotter et al., 2001) and obtain leadership positions, stereotypical gender beliefs about their "natural" competencies and limitations shape larger perceptions of their abilities and job performance. General and sexual harassment are very prominent, yet the under-considered example of such discrimination. Workplace harassment is, in fact, the mistreatment of a subordinate, a colleague or a supervisor, which if continued for an extended period (Einarsen et al., 2011). In fact, workplace harassment is a complex issue with many shapes, multiple factors and many levels (Agervold, 2007). General work harassment is defined as persistent negative actions by one or several persons towards an individual or a group of individuals, who have difficulties in defending themselves (Hecker, 2007).

Male co-workers, clients, and supervisors use harassment as an "equaliser" against women in power, research consistently showing, that sexual harassment is less about sexual desire than about control and domination. Established in 1970's, sexual harassment can be

defined as “unsolicited verbal or physical behaviour of a sexual nature...considered offensive by the recipient”. The vagueness of this definition, which has been altered due to legislation, has led to discrepancies in the personal and legal definition. It has been overwhelmingly agreed that “sexual harassment is less about sexual desire than about control and domination” (McLaughlin, Uggen, & Blackstone, 2009). According to MacKinnon’s proposition, harassment results from women’s oppression and subordinate position to men. According to the “vulnerable victim” hypothesis, more vulnerable workers will be subject to greater harassment, including women, racial minorities, and those with the most precarious positions and the least workplace authority has thus received some degree of empirical support (Berdahl, 2007).

Often time’s women are forced to leave their workplace to escape harassment, which can result in a significant financial loss. There are some areas where this hegemonic masculinity is even more prominent than in others. Many sociologists have studied the subculture to identify the factors that lead to the wide gaps between men and women in the service.

2.8 Work Place Discrimination Prohibition

In the last three decades, acknowledgement of sexual harassment of women at the workplace has reached a global scale (Lim & Lee, 2011; Okechukwu et al., 2014; Popovich & Warren, 2010). It is suggested that sexual harassment is an everyday crisis that hypothetically affected every working woman (Holmes & Flood, 2013).

As the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) suggested that female to male harassment comprises about 9 %, while male to female harassment comprises 90% of harassment; thus, it appears that merely employing women in management and executive positions (Al Shawi & Aldahwi N., 2013; Popovich & Warren, 2010) would necessarily reduce sexual harassment to a certain extent. At the same time, sexual harassment might be prevented or hampering the advancement of women to positions of power (Hays, 2013).

Although women have experienced harassment, still a massive population of women is joining the workforce. Despite the remarkable increase in the existence of women in the workforce, women’s right to entry into diverse managerial positions remains restricted, and

this is especially noticeable for senior management positions in Pakistan and many other parts of the world (Adams et al., 2007; Dey, 2013; Oakley, 2000; Gardner & Blackstone, 2013; Scott & Martin, 2006; Vianen & Fischer, 2002; Weiss, 2012; Weyer, 2007).

As far as, the harassment of women in the workplace in the developed world is concerned, two third of the complainants alleged, that their harasser was in a superior position to them, reflecting a traditional sexual harassment profile of a superior/subordinate relationship (AHRC, 2008). These jobs are characterised by low pay, low status, and short career ladders (Haarr & Morash, 2013) could enhance the risk of traditional model (Supervisor-Subordinate) of harassment at workplace. In the United States, Europe and many other countries of the world, women who are on low hierarchical status, have low organisational power and earn significantly less than men, are more frequent targets of sexual harassment (Bell, McLaughlin & Sequeira, 2002; Haarr & Morash, 2013). In addition, women in lower - status positions are more likely to be supervised or managed by men than by women (Haarr & Morash, 2013), which increases the risk of sexual harassment by their male superiors, bosses, colleagues and clients.

In Bangladesh, the large scale of women's entry into paid labour force has increased incidences of sexual harassment. Sexual harassment, work, and mobility appear to be closely intertwined in Bangladesh. Women are compelled to face double jeopardy when it comes to sexual harassment (Nari, 2003).

In Nepal, research on sexual harassment in the workplace revealed the problem of sexual harassment is highly prevalent in workplaces, as 53.84 percent of women employee/workers reported that they had faced sexual harassment in their workplaces (ILO, 2004). In Japan, a study conducted by the Ministry of Labour found that out of 2254 women respondent, two third were subject to sexual harassment. Caran et al. (2010) have conducted research to determine the existence of sexual harassment (SA) among professors in a public university in Brazil. The study found that 40.7 % of the survey participants admitted being victims of SA at work; 59.3 % knew the fellow who had suffered SA and 70.4 % stated that it is a common problem in the institution.

According to a survey, 93 % of the women in Pakistan have reported one or other form of sexual harassment in their workplace in Pakistan (Baber. 2007; HRCP, 2000; Sarwar & Nauman, 2011). Other studies also suggested that probably every Pakistani woman has

been harassed at least once in public and/or workplace (Yousaf, 2011; Yousaf & Mahmood, 2012; Weiss, 2012).

Interestingly, what is, perhaps, unexpected is that sexual harassment is found throughout the employment hierarchy and not simply among less educated or low hierarchy. Furthermore, a 2009 study by McLaughlin, Uggen and Blackstone (2009) found that “the strongest and most consistent risk for women aspiring authority positions is harassment” (McLaughlin, Uggen, and Blackstone, 2009). Simultaneously Hunt et al. (2007) noted if management allows a climate of disrespect to exist within an organization, this toleration leads to sneering to be taken for granted, leading to the creation of an ‘incivility spiral’ (low-intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm the target (Andersson & Pearson 1999). Another study has outlined a set of results from analysis of sexual harassment cases heard on appeal in Britain from 1995-2005. It was found, the majority of women were supervised by male bosses or heads, and they might have used sexual harassment as a tool to prevent women from moving up in the hierarchy. One more study about the sexual harassment complaints at workplaces has been found in a quarter of cases, that the alleged harasser was identified as the owner of the company or the person in a superior position (Barreto, Ryan & Schmitt, 2009; Lockwood et al., 2007). The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) in the USA has received 12,025 complaints of sexual harassment at the workplace. The report showed that there was a 100% increase in sexual harassment complaints in just five years (EEOC, 2014).

Women may face various discriminatory behaviours including harassment when trying to climb the top hierarchical position. Few of them who can attain positions of power might have to pay the cost to achieve them. These women may carry burdens of stereotyping, prejudice, sexual harassment, tokenism, and isolation (Barreto, Ryan, & Schmitt, 2009).

As a result of such obstacles, women might be demotivated, discriminated or may experience unseen denied access to higher hierarchical level. So resilient measures may require, which could deal with discriminatory practices at workplace.

The absence of formal control mechanism would further create marginalisation; women might further experience impediments to access academic excellence and positions of power. The following section will focus on describing the sexual harassment Act (2010)

guidelines in detail, by its implementations women may be able to work as per their potentials.

2.9 Sexual Harassment Act Guidelines

The Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan has developed detailed policy guidelines for universities to protect the women from harassment, discrimination, unequal treatment on the promotion and other rewards and directed the higher education institutes to instrument the policy. The Higher Education Commission (HEC) made it clear that Higher Education Institution (HEI) has to affirm the right of every member of its constituencies to live, study and work in an environment that is free from discrimination and sexual harassment. Similarly, policy guidelines state that universities and HEI recognise the significance of free community as an academic, and it is the fundamental right of academia to have freedom of expression and association. The universities would have to uphold an environment in which students and teaching and non-teaching staff can engage in free inquiry and open discussion of all issues without intimidation and harassment of others. The HEI have to take measures to protect all of its members from sexual harassment and to take action if such harassment does occur.

Meanwhile, the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan has itself admitted in their policy guidelines that sexual harassment is an everyday reality which happens in the classrooms, offices, research laboratories, and HEI environment in general in Pakistan (HEC, 2011). The guidelines have also explained the sexual harassment is an overt or subtle, and can range from visual signals or gestures to verbal abuse to physical contact with hand or sign language to denote sexual activity, sexual compliances are exchanged or proposed to be exchanged for rewards in job or education, persistently, unwelcome and uninvited flirting. Sexual harassment takes place when there is power or authority difference among people involved (Student/Teacher, Employee/Supervisor, Junior Teacher/Senior Teacher, Research Supervisee/Supervisor) (HEC, 2011).

At the same, HEC has directed the HEI to establish an educational program to prevent incidents of sexual harassment. It was also recommended that all Administrators, Deans, Managers, Department Chairs, Directors of Schools or Programs and others in supervisory or

leadership positions have an obligation to be familiar with and to endorse this policy and its processes and by appointing Harassment Monitoring Officer (HMO) along with informing members of their staff about its existence (HEC, 2011).

Although the sexual harassment Act (2010) has promulgated in Pakistan, however, the Implementation of this Act is a foremost problem in workplaces including universities. At the same time, many of educated and employed women are unaware of the Act and privileges they receive at the workplace (HEC, 2013; Mahmood & Ahmed, 2011; Sadruddin, 2012). Despite the policy by HEC and Government's enforcement of sexual harassment Act (2010), there are fewer formal reports of sexual harassment because most women who are harassed do not file lawsuits or even formally complain (McDonald et al., 2011). Somehow, failure to protest reflects gender bias in policies, stemming from perceptual differences in the way women and men view harassment and from women's perspective their complaints will not be taken seriously, and charges would only give them shame and stigma in society and specifically in universities (McDonald et al., 2011).

2.10 Societal Barriers

2.10.1 Patriarchy

The scientific debate has suggested that many inequalities and barriers women face in the workplace may stem from the patriarchal set-ups. This type of society is one that has been in place for centuries, in which men are the central authoritative figure, both at a micro and macro level. Patriarchy means "rule of the father" (Ferguson, 1999). Historically, patriarchy was used to refer to the autocratic ruling of a family by the father; however, it has evolved into identifying the social systems where adult men hold power (Meagher, 2011). This power, at a micro level, men are seen as the head and centre of a household, while at a macro level, they play the central role of political leadership and decision makers. This overwhelming male domination of society plays a role in the formation of political ideology, in which the views of those in power make all decisions and set priorities on behalf of all citizens, overwhelmingly, serving the needs of men. It is the male portion of the society that

benefits by continuing these practices and lack of equality between men and women (Taylor-Abdulai et al., 2014).

According to sociological theories, patriarchy is a result of social and cultural conditioning, passed on from generation to generation. Men continue to remain in power, resulting in a society aimed at pleasing the male gender. This power spans from political to occupational and personal aspects of society. Because of this hierarchical system, it can be overwhelmingly seen that it is the men who benefit from decisions made. Women must prove themselves, as able and competent individuals, whether it be in the workplace or civil suits in which they are fighting for justice.

Pakistan is a patriarchal society, where the male is the head of the family and is responsible for taking or approving all the decisions about the women of his family like education, selection of educational subjects, fields of occupation, and mate selection. For decades, the majorities of the women were confined to the home and were responsible for doing domestic chores. However, for almost last 20 years, females considerably came into higher education and eventually started coming into the paid labour force. However, entry into the paid workforce is not the end of the story. Despite having more qualifications and better credentials, the majority of the female are supervised and monitored by men. The patriarchal mindset also prevails in the public arena where male considered being more competent, authoritative, hardworking and skilled enough to take decisions and antagonistically women are deemed to be emotional, dependent, and need to be controlled by men (Dlamini & Adams, 2014).

2.10.2 Cultural Stereotype

Gender schemas go a long way toward explaining the subtle dynamics at work during recruitment and promotion on university campuses and organisation (Dehaghani, Cholmaghani, & Goli, 2013; Nemoto, 2013). In the 1970s, research revealed that "gender schemas" or stereotypes led people to overrate men's abilities and underrate women's when the same academic resume was rated higher if assigned a man's name (Valian, 1998). The most prominent explanation for "vertical occupational segregation" lies in perceived roles. These stem from cultural stereotypes of attributes and roles each gender is presumed to

occupy relative to the other. These stereotypes help lead men and women to their “respective” fields. Because women are seen as compassionate and nurturing, women continue to assume these roles by pursuing careers which tend to have lower paying salaries or lower status or low positions at workplaces. Similarly, women at workplace feel their ideas are ignored, or mistakenly discredited to one of their male co-workers. The ideas of those who speak more are often judged to be more valuable as compared to those offered by less talkative people. Women are more likely than men to be interrupted in group discussions. Some members of the panel, most men, have more opportunities to speak, their ideas are taken more seriously, and they have more influence over the group.

It was also stated that certain traits typically associated with men and women are taken into consideration by hiring managers. Traits like competence and authority are typically affiliated with those of higher status, and because cultural and stereotypical beliefs have led us to associate these, with men, there is a correlation between gender and higher positioning within organisations. Essentially, employers’ expectations of an employee based on status, gender, or role shape the chances of that employee’s opportunity to take on greater and “valuable” responsibility (Correll & Ridgeway, 2003). These cultural stereotypes are communicated to men and women from early childhood and become embedded in their behaviours. It is this socialisation that moulds the ideas and minds of children, hinting at whom they should be and what roles they should take on as they evolve into adulthood. These patterns of behaviours have been explained by **Expectation States Theory**, which explains the emergence of status hierarchies in situations where actors are oriented toward the accomplishment of a collective goal or task (Correll & Ridgeway, 2006). The theory also (Berger, Fisek & Conner, 1974) states, these hierarchies of evaluation, influence and participation are referred to the power and prestige structure or the status structure of the group. This theory tried to explain some of the most striking findings of Robert F. Bales' (1950), who was influenced by early studies of interpersonal behaviour in small groups (Berger, Conner, & Fisek, 1974; Berger & Zelditch, 1998). These studies encouraged Berger and his colleagues to formulate expectation states theory as a theory of an underlying process that (1) accounts for the formation of interactional status structures and (2) can explain how these structures develop both in groups of social equals and in groups where people differ in socially significant ways (Berger, Fisek & Conner, 1974).

Most disturbing, though, is that gender stereotyping remains a significant problem over forty years later. Most of the people hold implicit biases and carry the prejudices of which we are unaware, but that nonetheless play a significant role in our evaluations of people and their work (Ahmed & Hyder 2008; Batool, Sajid & Shaheen 2013; Bombuwela & De Alwis 2013; Cocchio 2009; Faiza 2013; Shalala et al., 2006).

Such biases create inequality by causing people to expect greater competence from men than from women, and thus to expect greater rewards to go to men rather to women who are otherwise their equals, biases also lead men, on average, to pay less attention to information that undermines expectations based on gender (Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013; Ghaus, 2013; Dehaghani, Cholmaghani, & Goli, 2013; Schwanke, 2013).

In contemporary scholarly discourse, the under-representation of women in academia is often explained by the phenomenon of women 'in the pipeline' (The pipeline carries flow from one stage to another, and the flow of women diminishes between the stages). It may assume that leading causes of leaking in the pipeline are the difficulty in reconciling the professional and family life of a female. Serious scholarly work requires mobility and competition that forces many women to abandon their career or take a career break for the period of assuming different family roles (Polkowska, 2014). Childcare and domestic works are all structural factors that have affected the women's possibilities of shattering the glass ceiling. If it is inevitable for women than for men to stay at home when the children are small, it will affect women's chances of advancement within the organisation. Pregnancy and exclusive breastfeeding for six months is a difficult task for women in academia for missing out on all these months would mean being less productive. It becomes nearly impossible for women to get the same merits, and compete on the same terms as men; these structural factors directly or indirectly might hold them back (Taylor-Abdulai et al., 2014).

Taylor-Abdulai et al., (2014) stressed that universities do not effectively create the necessary conditions to support mothers with children under two years. The invisibility or scarcity of women on the upper echelon of academic excellence and positions of influence could be the result of their roles as wives and mothers, which invariably leaves them with little or no time to anticipate in informal networks. The study found that much more women than men experience conflict regarding their ability to simultaneously play the role of wife, mother, and worker. Structural changes were suggested by Taylor-Abdulai et al. (2014) such

as "family friendly" policies in the form of flexible faculty meeting time, might be helpful so female faculty with children can participate effectively in university (Taylor-Abdulai et al., 2014).

In some instances, the extended family might play a major role in the care of young children. Western societies have achieved some progress towards gender equality in the public sphere of the labour market, but gender inequality in economic roles in the household may be more resistant to change. Such resistance to change in the private sphere helps keep gender inequalities and patriarchal structures in society. These patriarchal structures are, nevertheless, not only sustained by men, but also by women, that are socialised into believing that domestic tasks are for women and not for men (Taylor-Abdulai et al., 2014). Such societal practices are diffused to other levels of society.

Similarly, problems of sexual harassment in the workplace may discourage women to continue at work. Sexual harassment in the workplace though an age-old problem has emerged as a serious concern in Asia and the Pacific recently (Chaudhuri, 2010; Morley et al., 2017). Sexual harassment is a recurring problem around the globe despite the Laws and policies (Hejase, 2015; McDonald, Charlesworth, & Graham, 2015).

2.10.3 Harassment

Women's participation in the economic sector is crucial to their economic empowerment and their sustainability. Similarly, the gender inequality is alarmingly persistent in Pakistan, one of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is to ensure all the women in society are treated equally, but over a period, it is less than impressive (UNSECO, 2013).

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) published guidelines on sexual harassment; these guidelines clarified the illegality of harassment, describing two distinct types as being unlawful sex discrimination: quid pro quo and hostile environment harassment. In quid pro quo harassment, employment related bribery or threat is used to obtain sexual compliance. The coercive nature of quid pro quo harassment requires that the harasser has some power over the target. Thus most of such harassment is perpetrated by managers or supervisors. Hostile environment harassment occurs when sexual behaviours

have "the purpose or affect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive" work environment (ILO, 2012; Mackinnon, 1979). This type of harassment may be perpetrated by managers, supervisors, peers, or subordinates.

Sexual harassment may contribute to the perpetuation of occupational sex segregation. Women may purposefully enter occupations typically dominated by women - occupations that have lower pay and fewer opportunities. Sexual harassment may be deliberate and resentful behaviour, designed to deter women from entering, retaining and progressing in the profession (Dey, 2013). Various studies found that women as wage earners, throughout the world might tolerate sexual harassment as part of their job (Chaudhuri, 2010; Dey, 2013; Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1993; Hasan & Mustafa, 2014; McDonald, Charlesworth, & Graham, 2015; McDonald, 2012; Morgan, 2001; Morgan, 2000; Niaz, 2003).

There are different known types of harassing behaviours which women can experience in the workplace, including offensive jokes, remarks or gossips, intrusive questions, invasion of personal space, unwanted touching, offensive pictures or other derogatory materials and physical assault (Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1993; Lim & Lee, 2011; Martin, 2001; Okechukwu et al, 2014; Uggen & Bleckstone, 2004; Yousaf, 2014),

Some other researchers have identified verbal aggression, obscenity, property damage, telephone threats, stalking and bullying increasingly as an occupational issue and a work based stressor (Gillani, 2010; Okechukwu et al., 2014).

The studies suggested the head of the institute's gender, and behaviour influences the perceptions of organisational tolerance towards sexual harassment and the actual existence of sexual harassment in an organisation (Dey, 2013; Holmes & Flood, 2013; Popovich & Warren, 2010). For example, Gutek's (1985) study of workers in Los Angeles found women who had a male supervisor were more likely to report being harassed. Most of these women were harassed by male co-workers, who may have perceived that such behaviour was tolerated (or condoned) by male supervisors. Simultaneously, women who reported to a male supervisor viewed the organisation as being more tolerant of harassment than women who reported to a female supervisor. Nevertheless, women workers who worked in male-dominated environments and whose supervisors were men experienced more frequent sexual

harassment compared to women whose supervisors were women. Further, women whose supervisors were men, they perceived them as being biased against women.

Some of the studies refute the idea that supervisors' gender might shape the organisational tolerance or intolerance towards sexual harassment. According to them, it is not much significant, rather they have argued that organisations had little control over individual proclivities (Holmes & Flood, 2013; Scott & Martin, 2006; Shaffer et al., 2000) but policies need to be made on equality basis. On the other hand, studies by Lockwood (2007) and Jackson & Newman (2004) suggested that supervisor's gender is a factor towards sexual harassment, which may define how the women would be treated in the workplace (Jackson & Newman, 2004; Lockwood, 2007).

It is of pertinent importance, that all the activities and behaviours of sexual harassment cannot be generalized globally due to cultural differences, perception, and normative values vary throughout the world (Agocs, Attieh & Cooke, 2004; Equal Opportunities Commission, 2014; Luthar & Luthar, 2007), these variation could also be evident in different organizational cultures, socialization and individual characteristics (Scott and Martin, 2006; Gruber, Smith & Kauppinen-Toropainen, 1996).

It is a general observation that social-sexual normative behaviours may vary culture to culture. One act or gesture like someone patting a person as a sign of approval might be quite normal in one society, but could be highly offensive to others (Cantisano et al., 2008; Dellinger & Williams, 2002; Uggen, 2004) especially in Pakistani cultural perspective (Baber, 2007).

Sexual harassment was difficult to define because it involves identifying the action and understanding the way it is perceived and experienced by women. Much of the touching, flirting and joking that goes on between the sexes is not sexual harassment because it is mutual. Sexual behaviour becomes harassment when it is unwanted and intrusive. In such cases, advancements are not welcome, it not only offends but and it threatens the recipient (Dey, 2013; Gillani, 2010; McDonald, 2012; Scott and Martin, 2006; Wilson & Thompson, 2001).

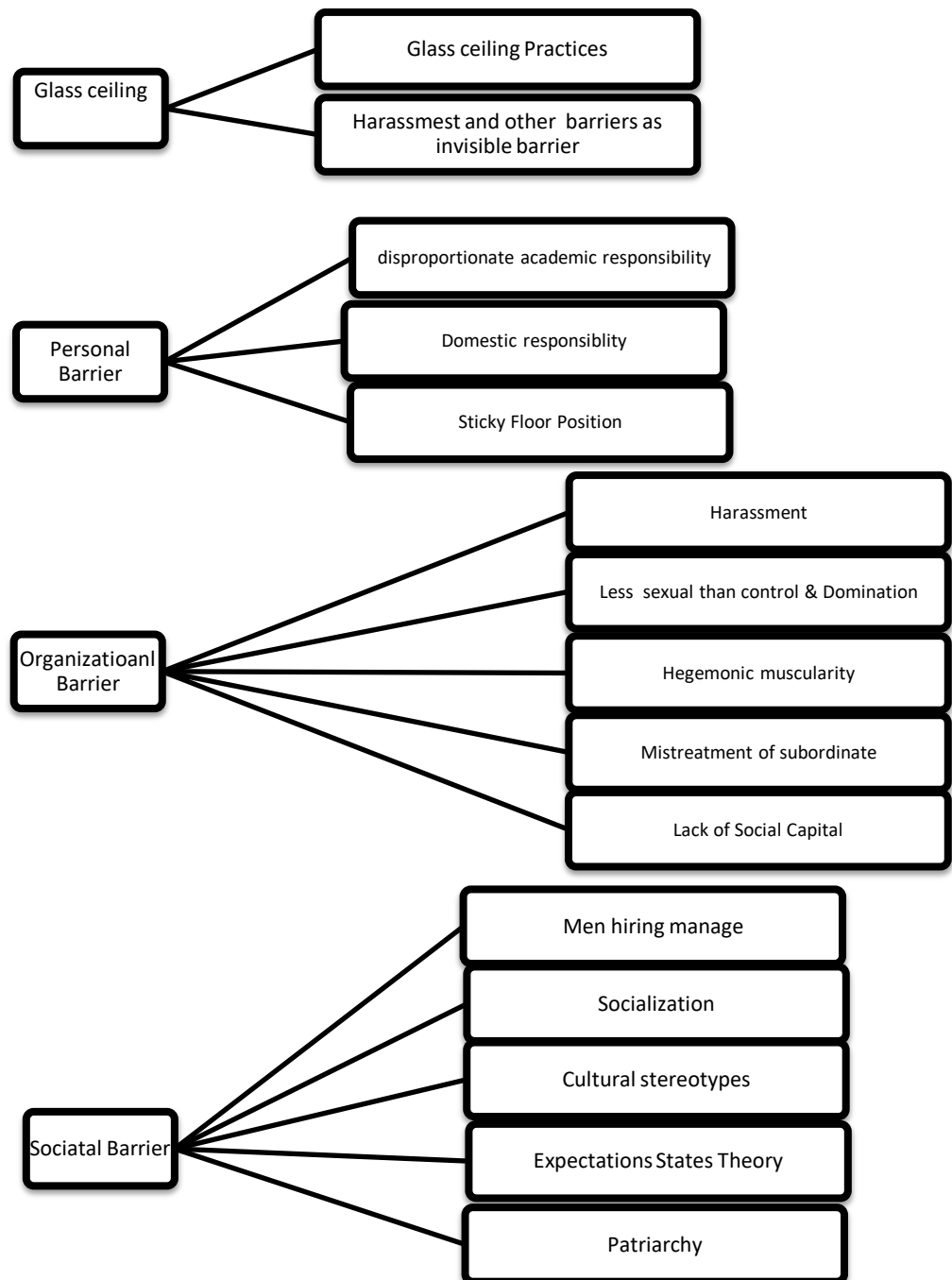
Perhaps, gender equality is a key element in reducing discrimination and harassment. Given the small percentage of women in positions of power and decision-making in organisations would rather enhance the chance of discrimination and harassment (Jackson &

Newman, 2004; Scott & Martin, 2006; Shaffer et al., 2000). Such incidents of discrimination are extending effect on the employee in the form of physical and psychological dis-functioning, lowered job satisfaction, litigation costs, and damage awards, that would affect the productivity of the workplace as well (Yousaf, 2014).

It might be helpful to include heads; executives of both genders in support of efforts to curb harassment. Organisational support of gender equality has argued that efforts to prevent sexual harassment would include equal numbers of women and men at various levels of authority and clearly communicated job roles with expected duties and limits. Women working in gender-integrated settings with approximately equal numbers of men and women reported the lowest levels of harassment (Holmes & Flood, 2013).

So, it can be assumed that underrepresentation of women in academic excellence and positions of power might be associated with an unofficial barrier (glass ceiling) which could stem from societal, organisational and personal barriers as shown below:-

Figure 6: Conceptual Model of Barriers based on Theoretical Perspectives



2.11 Main Finding from the Literature

A literature review has highlighted the gender discrimination, stereotypes of societies, patriarchy, and hegemonic masculinity, lack of social capital of women, the glass ceiling and sexual harassment in the workplace may have enormous effects on women academics. The main findings of the literature are as follow:-

1. **Women in Academia:** Women are well represented throughout the universities globally as undergraduates, graduate students and increasingly as faculty and staff members, yet their ranks and influence in leadership positions have not matched the growth.
2. Despite much announced and promised equal employment opportunity claims by organisations across time, yet, women are under-represented.
3. In the United States, women are underrepresented in fields that had a significant proportion of female PhDs for thirty years (Castillo, Grazzi & Tacsir, 2014), in 2009 there were 28 % Professors in the USA, though, this proportion is higher than Europe (ECU, 2013).
4. In European Union women represent only 20 % of full professors and 15.5 % of heads of institutions in the Higher Education sector and 10 % of universities had a female Rector (European Commission, 2012). Even the pay gap between men and women is also visible (Eurostate, 2015).
5. Despite having an aggressive policy in Sweden to promote gender equality in the higher education, Sweden managed to get only 22 % of the female professors (European Commission, 2012).
6. In the European Union, the glass ceiling index stood at 1.8 in the EU-27 in 2010 pointing towards slow progress since 2004 when the index stood at 1.9 the higher the score, the thicker the ceiling (European Commission, 2012).
7. The UK has 20.5 % women professors (ECU, 2013). According to the statistics of Times Higher Education (2012) all over the UK on average, one in five professors is female. However, several universities are falling well short of that low benchmark.
8. Whereas in South Asia in Pakistan there were 19.7 % female professors in 2006 as compared to 23 % in the year 2000. Similarly, there were 18.5 % female professors in

India in 2006. Whereas the proportion of female professors in Sri Lanka was highest in the region, it was 24.5 % in 2006 (Singh, 2008).

9. **Explanation of Underrepresentation:** Studies from various parts of the world have suggested that women may advance to the top of the middle management and academic hierarchy, however, may not pass through barriers and reach the top of the hierarchy. With many other suppressing factors, the glass ceiling and sexual harassment could be the primary causes contributing to the underrepresentation of women at the top.
10. The glass ceiling (GC) is a form of discrimination that is affecting women's lack of access to power and status in organisations. The term "the glass ceiling" refers to the invisible barrier, stated that "the higher the post, the fewer the women.
11. The glass ceiling is manifested in multiple ways: informal recruitment practices that fail to recruit women, lack of opportunities for training and mentorship, exclusion from informal networks, menial assignments rather than challenging assignments, wage gaps despite comparable work, gender stereotypes, male-dominated structures, sexual, ethnic, racial, religious discrimination or harassment has placed barriers to advancement for women.
12. In the United States, Europe and many other parts of the world, women who are on low hierarchical status, have little organisational power and earn significantly less than men, are more frequent targets of sexual harassment (Bell, McLaughlin & Sequeira, 2002; Haarr & Morash, 2013).
13. Sexual harassment may be deliberate and resentful behaviour, designed to deter women from entering, retaining and progressing in the profession (Dey, 2013).
14. Sexual harassment in the workplace is the leading form of gender-based inequality which working women are facing in Pakistan (Ali & Kramar, 2014; Caran et al., 2010).
15. Still, many of the females remain silent and are reluctant to lodge formal or informal complaint due to the fear of losing a job, shame, stigmatisation on women's reputation and many women do not let their families informed (D'Cruz & Rayner, 2013).

16. **Measures to Deal with Sexual Harassment:** The Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan has developed detailed policy guidelines for universities to protect the women from harassment, discrimination, unequal treatment on the promotion and other rewards and directed the higher education institutes to instrument the policy.
17. Although the sexual harassment Act (2010) has promulgated in Pakistan, however, the implementation of this Act is a foremost problem in workplaces including universities.
18. **Personal Barrier:** There are predictably some striking differences, or "gaps" between men and women's academic responsibilities, household duties, and family situations.
19. Women are more likely to have their careers interrupted by parental leaves (Acker & Armenti, 2004), or may not stay long due to home and parenting responsibilities, or are hired with less experience than men.
20. **Organisational Barrier:** -Once women have successfully found their way into the workforce and landed in a position in their desired organisation, other types of discrimination become apparent (Einarsen et al., 2011).
21. As a result, targets of sex-based harassment are most likely to be women who threaten men's status. Berdahl (2007) found that women with stereotypically masculine personalities (assertive, dominant, and independent) were more likely than other women to experience harassment at school.
22. Hegemonic Masculinity' shape norms of gendered interaction (Connell's well-known theory of Hegemonic Masculinity, 1987)
23. Social capital enhances one's ability to advance in the competition between individuals. Advantageous relationships can secure material or symbolic 'profit', and group members enjoy certain privileges they have not necessarily earned (Bourdieu, 1986: 249).
24. Academia and university governed by hierarchical systems, where policies and activities determined by the top individuals. The culture built on competition for economic (hierarchical level, pay plans), social (networking, power, authority), and symbolic (visibility, scientific recognition and prestige/honour) capital (Bourdieu's 1986).

25. **Societal Barrier:** Studies have suggested that many inequalities and obstacles women face in the workplace may stem from the patriarchal set-ups.
26. According to Sociological Theories, patriarchy is a result of social and cultural conditioning, passed on from generation to generation. Men continue to remain in power, resulting in a society aimed at pleasing the male gender.
27. Pakistan is a patriarchal society, where the male is the head of the family and is responsible for taking or approving all the decisions about the women.
28. In the 1970s, research revealed that "gender schemas" or stereotypes led people to overrate men's abilities and underrate women's when the same academic resume was rated higher if assigned a man's name (Valian, 1998). The most prominent explanation for "vertical occupational segregation" lies in perceived roles.
29. These stem from cultural stereotypes of attributes and roles each gender is presumed to occupy relative to the other. These stereotypes help lead men and women to their "respective" fields. Because women are seen as compassionate and nurturing, women continue to assume these roles by pursuing careers which tend to have lower paying salaries or lower status or low positions at workplaces.
30. Traits like competence and authority are typically affiliated with those of higher status, and because cultural and stereotypical beliefs have led us to associate these, with men, there is a correlation between gender and higher positioning within organisations.
31. Expectation States Theory has explained these patterns of behaviours; it states the emergence of status hierarchies in situations where actors are oriented toward the accomplishment of a collective goal or task.
32. Childcare and domestic works are all structural factors that have affected the women's possibilities of shattering the glass ceiling.
33. Along with some gender and societal concrete barriers, women also experience quite a few organisational barriers at workplaces.

3. MATERIAL AND METHODS

3.1 Methodological Approach

The present research is based on Triangulation research method (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) of a survey of employed women in universities and semi-structured interviews of the head of Departments, Directors and Deans of Institutes working in public, private and public- private universities of Pakistan along with observation.

Triangulation is often referred to all instances in which two or more research methods are employed. In social sciences, the use of 'triangulation' can be traced back to Campbell and Fiskel (1959). This was later developed by The Web (1966) and elaborated by Denzin (1970) beyond its conventional association with research methods and designs. According to his triangulation, it can be distinguished in four forms, like *Data triangulation*, which entails gathering data through several sampling strategies, so slices of data at different times and social situations, as well as on a variety of people, are gathered. *Investigator triangulation*, which refers to the use of more than one researcher in the field to gather and interpret data. *Theoretical triangulation*, which refers to the use of more than one theoretical position in interpreting the data and *Methodological triangulation* which relates to the use of more than one method and the present research, has used all four triangulation methods. Triangulated techniques are helpful for cross-checking and used to provide confirmation and completeness, which brings 'balance' between different types of research. The purpose is to increase the credibility and validity of the results (Yeasmin & Khan, 2012). So, the present research is also utilising the diverse aspects of triangulation.

This research is focusing on the question, are the majority of the women working in lower hierarchical positions in universities of Pakistan? Based on the literature review, the central hypothesis of the research has developed that the prevalence of various impediment (Personal, organisational, societal) prohibit women to climb hierarchical positions upward. Simultaneously, the study would also explore if there were multiple other factors which might be contributing towards women's underrepresentation at higher hierarchical positions in universities.

Firstly, the survey of women working in different hierarchical positions (Research/Administrative Assistant – Professor) in public, private and public- private universities reflected the prevalence and magnitude of personal, organisational and societal barriers along with other conceivable dynamics in universities and its impact on the underrepresentation of women. Similarly, the awareness and implementation of harassment Act (2010) explored. At Last the survey also discovered various corresponding causes, which were preventing women from accessing higher hierarchical level.

Secondly, semi-structured interviews with the head of departments, directors and deans of institutes working in public, private and public- private universities were done. Primarily, interview intended to explore the implementation of Workplace Act. In 2010 the Government of Pakistan had passed protection against harassment of women in the Workplace Act, (2010) and HEC made it mandatory for Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) to implement it. The head of the departments, directors and deans of the Institute were directly responsible for the implementation of the Act in HEIs. According to HEC (2011), “policy guidelines against sexual harassment in institutes of higher education” heads of departments and institutes are responsible for organising seminars, constituting the inquiry committee and displaying the Act in the entrances of their departments. The interviews also explored the reason and barriers which women academics may have experienced in accessing the position of power and excellence.

Thirdly, the observation carried to explore, if the harassment Act was displayed in the Department and Institute.

3.2 Survey: Sample Criteria and Population

The Jurisdiction of the study was the province of Punjab; Pakistan, Punjab signifies its socio - economic developmental distinction from other provinces (Jamal & Jahan, 2007). The primary focus of the debate was a small but distinct group of working women (only) in academic departments in public, private and public-private sector universities.

Only those respondents were included in the survey from public and private universities of Punjab, Pakistan who were working from Research /Administrative assistants to Professor hierarchical level (Appendix G, operational definitions). Considering the specific

nature of the research criteria, access to the research sample achieved through probability sampling as the sampling frame was available. In the beginning, list of employees was taken from university's website (although many universities do not update their websites so often). However, during the data collection previously developed sampling list was matched with existing faculty members and amended on existing workforce (if some of the employees had left the Institute or were on leave were excluded). Those who were working during data collection, but excluded from the website were included in the sample. Invitation letter explaining the purpose of research, its aims and consideration of informed consent were attached to the questionnaire (Appendices A, B).

3.2.1 Sampling Strategy

Maximum variation in the sampling was employed with the inclusion of women serving in various hierarchical positions from Research/Administrative Assistant to Professor in universities. Meanwhile, there were variations in institutional structure, i.e. public, private and public-private universities. Simultaneously, there was variation in university's size. Specifically, all the universities in the sample were categorised general universities.

The variations in the sample are as follow:-

1. Hierarchical position of women,
2. Institutional structure (public, private, public- private),
3. University size (variety of academic departments and operations).

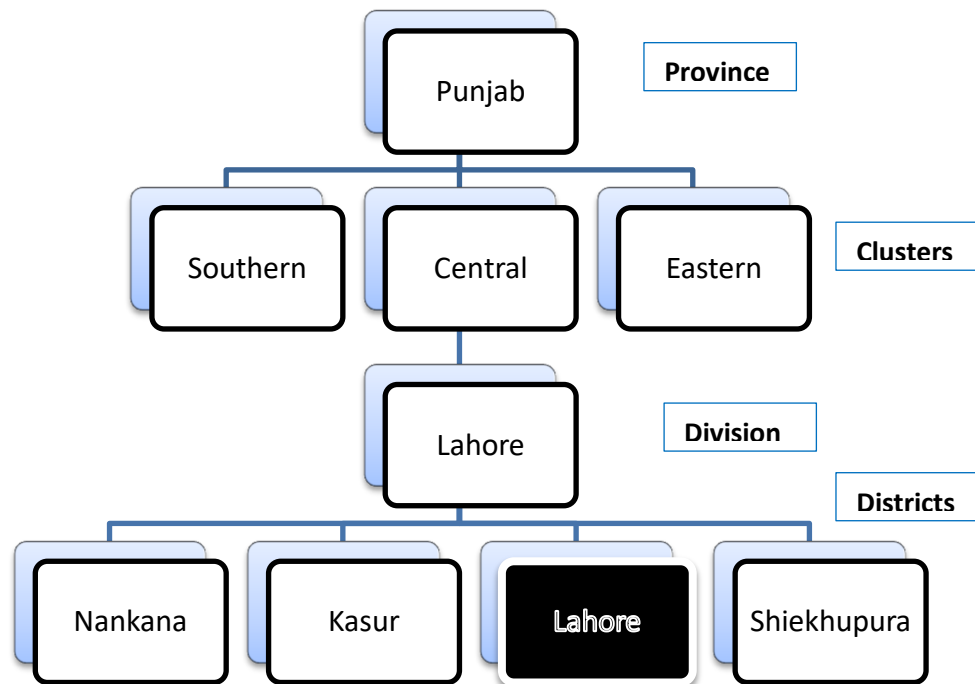
3.2.2 Sampling

The multi-stage cluster sampling technique used to approach the respondents. For this purpose, the selected Punjab province (Pakistan has five Provinces, and Punjab is the most populated and developed) has been divided into nine divisions and three clusters southern, central and eastern (Jamal & Jahan 2007).

So, out of three clusters, central Punjab clusters were selected randomly. In Central Punjab, Lahore division was selected afterwards. In Lahore division, there are four districts

Lahore, Shiekhupura, Nankana Sahib and Kasur. The following figure shows the division of Punjab into clusters and district.

Figure 7:- Punjab Province Distribution



Source: Bureau of Statics

In these four Districts, Lahore is the only District, which has a maximum number of colleges and universities, so out of these four Districts, Lahore was selected intentionally to maximise the number of higher education institutions. In Pakistan, there are total 138 universities, out of which there are 75 public and 63 private universities (Bureau of Statics 2013, HEC 2012). In Punjab only, there are 22 public and 21 private universities. However, in Lahore only, there are 12 public and 16 private sector universities are functional (Higher Education Commission, 2012). Randomly four universities from Lahore district were selected in the sample.

To develop the sampling frame, firstly, the websites of universities were searched, and lists of all the female staff are working in various hierarchical positions in all the faculties of the University were developed. Subsequently, faculties were randomly selected, and in selected faculties, all the departments were included in the sample. In the selected

departments all the women working from Research/Administrative assistant-Professor (Appendix G) were the part of the sample.

During the data collection stage, the list of the sample was matched and amended according to the actual working staff of respective department as many of the universities do not update their websites regularly.

3.2.3 Sample Size and Statistical Analysis

The choice of sample size is as important as is the choice of sampling scheme because it also determines the extent to which the researcher can make statistical and/or analytic generalisations.

The current study was measuring the difference between and among the groups (i.e. four different type of universities, various hierarchical levels), So, after the descriptive analysis the the crosss tabulation and post Hoc testing was carried. It was significant to consider the appropriate sample size for measuring the difrences (Cohen, 1988; VanVoorhis & Morgan,2007). At the same time to find the multiple reasons of women's underrepresentation, the factor analysis was applied and as per studies for factor analysis 300 cases (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996) or the more lenient 50 participants per factor are recommended (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

In the present research total 451 participants were randomly selected, and finally, 411 questionnaires were collected, some of the respondents had lost the questionnaires, and they were not intended to take a new one and some of them never present in their office despite repeated visits. The data have been collected in a pen -paper survey.

3.2.4 Tool of Data Collection

A questionnaire (Appendix E) consisted of background and professional qualification related questions; response categories were exhaustive and mutually exclusive. However, questions on barriers which could hamper the women to access academic excellence and positions of power were asked on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, to strongly agree. Reliability of the items was checked by applying

Cronbach's Alpha, and its value is 0.75. At the same time questions on sexual harassment and underrepresentation of women were asked on a five-point Likert scale ranging from, never, rarely, sometimes, often, and very often. Reliability of the items was checked by applying Cronbach's Alpha, and its value is 0.78.

The questions related to the awareness of Harassment Act (2010) in universities were dichotomous.

3.3 Institutional Control and Setting

Institutions included in the present study also varied by control. The participants from the public university were the largest group 49 percent and 22 percent, 21 percent and 8 percent were randomly included from public-private, private and small public university consecutively in the survey. All the institutions were situated in the capital of Punjab, Lahore. The Lahore is bounded on the east by Wagah, Pakistan and Indian Border (Akhtar et al., 2005).

3.4 Data Collection Phase

The data has been collected in two phases, the first step comprised of a survey of employed women working in universities. The purpose of the survey was to get the information about the reasons, experiences, knowledge and encounters which could contribute towards the women's underrepresentation. The questionnaires were handed over to the participants and later have been collected. Some of the participants asked the additional questions on collection date, and after clarifications, they returned the questionnaire. Some of the participants on the second visit requested for extra time to fill in the questionnaire and few extra days to complete it. Nonetheless, some of the participants were very non-cooperative despite several commitments. Eventually, they returned the unfilled questionnaire, or they have misplaced them already. Few of those, who lost the questionnaire, requested for another copy and shortly filled and returned the questionnaire.

A second phase was comprised of semi-structured interviews with the Head of Departments and Deans of respective faculties. Firstly, the purpose of the interviews was to

get the information on the implementation of harassment Act (2010), secondly, to get the information about reasons and barriers women were experiencing in accessing academic excellence positions.

A survey was started in March 2014, it took seven months to complete the data collection, and various post-graduate students have conducted the survey. On the other hand, the semi-structured interviews were started in August 2014 and it took two months to complete the data collection. The researcher conducted all the interviews. The data has collected from four different universities, large public, small public, large public-private and large private university of Lahore, Pakistan. The 451 participants were randomly selected from four universities, and finally, 411 questionnaires were collected. There were 40 unfilled, not returned and incomplete questionnaires, for this sample the non-response bias was calculated.

3.4.1 Non Response Bias

Nonresponse error in surveys arises from the inability to obtain a data from individuals in the sample, resulting in missing data. A critical concern is when that nonresponse leads to biased estimates. Nonresponse bias is a product of the difference between respondents and non-respondents on a particular measure and the size of the nonresponse population. Mainly a non-response error occurs either at the unit level or at the item level. Unit nonresponse occurs when no data is available for a sampled individual. This, in turn, is commonly due to the fact that units (individuals) in the sample refuse to take part in the survey, are physically or mentally unable to respond, or cannot be contacted during the data collection phase. As opposed to nonresponse occurring at the unit level, item nonresponse and partial nonresponse occur at the item level when substantive answers to one or more items are missing (Bethlehem, Cobben, & Schouten, 2011; Kalsbeek, & House, 2014). As far as the non-respondents of this study were concerned, they will be discussed in following lines by hypothesising that there was non-response bias in the study.

Of the respondents in large public university 50 percent lecturer and below respondents gave no-response to survey question. By contrast, 100 percent of the participant

in small public university had non-response. Thus, the lecturer and below respondents in large public university gave no- response more often (+50 percentage points).

Of the respondents in large public university, 6 percent Professor gave no response to survey questions. This is 6 percentage points more than the respondents in small public university professors 0 percent, 3 percentage points less than the respondents in large public-private university and 16 percentage points less than the respondents in large private university.

Of the respondents in large public university 28 percent, Assistant Professor gave no-response to survey question. By contrast, 0 percent of the participant in small public university, 0 percent in large private university and 9 percent in large public – private university had non-response. Thus, the Assistant Professors respondents in large public university gave no- response more often than the respondents in large public – private university (+19 percentage points).

Of the respondents in large public university, 17 percent Associate Professor gave no-response to survey question. By contrast, 0 percent of the participant in small public university, 0 percent in large private university and 18 percent in large public – private university had non-response. Thus, the Associate Professors respondents in large public university gave no- response less often than the respondents in large public – private university (-1 percentage points).

As 13 cells (81 %) I have expected count less than 5 (as expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio is observed the overall Likelihood Ratio yielded an insignificant result (Likelihood Ratio = 11.390; d.f. = 9; $p > .1$). This suggests that the sample result cannot be generalized to the population. Accordingly, the non- response bias is not found among the respondents in various universities. It generated moderate relationship (Cramer's V .27) (Table X, Appendix A).

In this research, the non-response is at the unit level, as 40 respondents (9 %) had not filled, returned the questionnaires and despite several contact attempts, they were inaccessible (Total sample 451- non respondents 40 = Total respondents 411). Generally, it is assumed that unit nonresponse is negligible provided that the group of non-respondents is a random subset of the sample, and that unit nonresponse is not systematically related to the variables being measured in the survey. Although there are no biasing effects, in that case, unit

nonresponse leads to increased variance of estimates and thus, to less precise or reliable estimates as a result of the reduced effective sample size. By contrast, nonresponse biases occur when non-respondents systematically differ from respondents with respect to the variables being measured in the survey. The extent of the biasing effects on survey data depends on the share of non-respondents on the total sample. A lower response rate increases the potential for greater nonresponse bias, but when the data are missing at random, a lower response rate will neither create nor increase nonresponse error (Kalsbeek, & House, 2014). On the other hand, when analyses are based solely on the respondent's data and non-respondents differ from respondents to a non-ignorable extent with regard to the characteristics of interest, this result in a nonresponse bias in terms of inaccurate or invalid estimates of the theoretical construct (Bethlehem et al., 2011). However, in his study, the response rate was over 90 percent, and non-response bias is not being found.

3.5 Semi-Structured Interview: Sampling Strategy and Population

In the first phase of research, the data has collected from four different types of universities regarding their operations (public and private) and structure (small and large), and in the second phase. The criteria of universe inclusion remained same for the semi-structured interviews except for the participants, i.e. head of departments or deans.

There were three primary types of variation in semi-structured interviews:-

1. Heads: Hierarchical position, Head of Departments, Head of Institute, Director or Dean.
2. University type (Public, Private, Public- Private).
3. University size (Small, Large, Medium)

3.5.1 Sampling

The researcher has developed a list of deans and head of departments based on information available on each institution's website and later matched with the actual names in respective university. The deans and head of departments were firstly contacted by e-mail (Appendix D), unfortunately, except two heads, none of the others has replied to the e-mail.

Afterwards, researcher personally visited their offices, took the appointments and interviewed them for the practical steps taken to protect the women staff and implementation of Workplace Act (2010). Concurrently they were asked to explain the reasons of underrepresentation of women in academic excellence and positions of power in university which barriers women were repeatedly experiencing on climbing the hierarchical ladder in universities.

3.5.2 Sample Size

The sample size was an important consideration for this research design. As, Lincoln & Guba (1985) recommend sample selection for qualitative research to the point of redundancy, when new participants yield no new information (Diehl, 2013). According to Mason (2010), this point of saturation can be difficult to identify. Although many researchers claim to get saturation without proving it, as new data will always add something new to a study, after a certain point, there are diminishing returns (Mason, 2010). In the present research Fourteen interviews were conducted, mainly the main purpose of the interviews was to find the implementation of the Workplace Act (2010) in particular university. The point was saturation; interviews continued until new interview yielding limited information.

3.6 Research Paradigm: Constructivism

In patriarchal Pakistani society, when women decided to come out for paid employment, despite constructing the new realities, they were experiencing hindrances and barriers. Primarily the interviews were conducted to explore the implementation of harassment Act (2010) in universities. However, the interviews also aimed at probing the heads of department (men, women), to recount the reasons, experiences and encounters, which could contribute towards the women's underrepresentation at academic excellence and position of power.

Somehow when people come to the workplace, they internalise the workplace processes and mechanism of work, promotion, observe and experience barriers by such mechanism they may construct their own meaning of underrepresentation of women in the university. The social constructivist paradigm is used to analyse the data that how people who

already reached the higher academic hierarchical levels, make meaning of underrepresentation of women, primarily focusing on capturing the men's view. According to Creswell (2007), social constructivism is a worldview which assumes that individuals seek to understand their world by developing multiple, subjective meanings of their experiences. These meanings are varied and complex and are negotiated socially and historically. Most importantly, individuals form meanings through interaction with others, while basing interpretations on their own historical and cultural norms (Creswell, 2007).

3.7 Data Coding

The second phase of interviews was the coding phase. To code the data, firstly, all of the fourteen interviews were transcribed and field notes compiled. Consequently, all the areas which were corresponding to research questions were highlighted. Interview transcripts and field notes were again thoroughly read to help to highlight and to annotate all areas which spoke to the research question. Research has then collected all the annotations and organised them with labels which corresponded to themes (Diehl, 2013).

After finalising the themes, the internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity were considered, so the themes produce the coherent and meaningful analysis. Homogeneity was sure to make themes which were mutually exclusive and external homogeneity was ensured that themes were not overlapping in various sections (Mayring, 2000).

3.8 Logical Analysis

In this phase, the researcher had gone through a logical analysis of themes to explore their interconnectedness. Logical analysis of themes helped to find and organise new thematic patterns if they could have missed the first stage. This was extremely helpful to generate new patterns of analysis. Logical analysis worked back and forth between these logical constructions of the data to discover the meaningful patterns (Patton, 2002).

3.9 Interpretive Analysis

Patton (2002) has highlighted the importance of interpretive analysis by describing interpretation goes beyond the descriptive data by attaching significance to what was found, finding meanings, offering explanations, and drawing conclusions. The researcher used the data (interviews, field notes, and generated themes), social perspective and her point of view to make sense of the evidence (Patton, 2002). Both the evidence and researcher's perspective are elucidated so that the difference between the description of the data and investigator's interpretation is clear (Patton, 2002).

3.10 Ethical Consideration

Confidentiality and privacy were important concerns of this research; therefore the participant's identity and their institutes and department name were converted into pseudo names and identities.

For the privacy concerns, instead of using the name of universities, it was converted into its affiliation, i.e. public, private, and public- private university.

4. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

4.1 Survey with Women Respondents

The scientific literature continuously highlighted, if women try to achieve a higher hierarchical level, they might experience a type of exploitation and bigoted treatments on the way to climb the hierarchical ladder (Charlesworth & Graham, 2015). Despite having and achieving high academic credentials, women are less likely securing most potent and influential posts in higher education institutions and universities across the globe (Avin et al., 2015). It was also highlighted in literature that generations of women may have faced glass ceiling in the form of discrimination, male-dominating networks, unequal work distribution, exclusion from broader opportunity networks and intimidation as a part of work and impediments to achieving higher hierarchical level (Saher, Ali, & Matloob, 2014; Sharma & Sehrawat, 2015). As a result of these impediments few women passing through the barriers and reaching the positions of excellence hence underrepresented in higher positions.

The focus of this study was on employed women (in Survey) in universities in Pakistan, which is placed at the 141th place out of 142 countries in the Global Gender Gap, where the generations of women may have experienced mentioned above inhibitions acutely due to traditional and patriarchal mindset (Saher, Ali, & Matloob, 2014; Sharma & Sehrawat, 2015).

So firstly to establish, if women are underrepresented in higher hierarchical positions in universities in Pakistan, a background and an extensive dataset regarding Pakistan was required. However, the non-availability of data regarding the representation of women at various hierarchical levels in universities of Pakistan was challenging. For instance, recently as a part of South Asia Region – Global Education Dialogues (GEDS), The British Council in Pakistan has gathered the data on Women, Higher Education and Leadership from six South Asian countries (Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka). Their report found there was an overwhelming absence of statistical data in the region regarding women and leadership in higher education institutions (Moorly & Crossouard, 2015).

Simultaneously, Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC) a regulatory body of Higher Education Institutions (HEI) maintained the record about the Higher Education

Institutions and its employees since 2002 onwards for most of the years but has upheld no gender segregated data for women's leadership or employment status (Moorly & Crossouard, 2015).

Under such circumstances, only available information regarding the employability of the women could be analysed to build the background for the present research. Until recently women labour force participation in Pakistan was much lower as compared to other countries in the region with similar economic growth. However, after the turn of the 21st century due to the proliferation of advanced educational facilities in the vicinity and owing to the augmented economic pressures women started coming into the paid economy. So in 2012-13, there was 44 percent of the adult male population had waged or salaried job compared to 25 percent of females in Pakistan.

As far as the labour force participation of women in higher education institutions was concerned, rendering to the only available survey about the representation of women in Commonwealth Universities of South Asia carried by Singh (2008) highlighted that in 2006 there were only 9 percent women deans and 20 percent women Professors in Pakistani universities (Singh, 2008). Simultaneously, one of the biggest and the oldest institutions of higher learning in Pakistan, University of the Punjab, Lahore (2012) also compiled the data of gender-based hierarchical proportions of its staff which revealed that there were 40 percent women and 60 men employees in the university out of which 17 percent women and 13 percent men were working as Lecturer. Consequently, the men were less likely to work in a lower academic hierarchy. The data also described there were 11 percent women and 21 percent men working as Assistant Professor (beginning Professorial rank), resultantly the men were most likely working as Assistant Professors, as far as the Associate Professors were concerned there were only 1 percent women and 3 percent men were working as Associate Professor (Intermediate Professorial rank). Here again, men were more likely working as Associate Professors and finally only 1 percent women and 6 percent men were working as Professors (Top Professorial rank) in one of the largest universities of Pakistan. Thus, the men were more likely working as Professors. Although, these trends showed that where the men are few on professorial rank, the proportion of women is even lower (Fact Book, PU, 2012).

So under these immense challenges, firstly, it was substantial to prepare a baseline data about the proportion of women working on various hierarchical levels in this study. Secondly, although it was crucial to acquire data about the men working on various hierarchical levels in universities, however in academic research, where the time and funds were limited, it was not possible to include the male employees in the sample.

Therefore, it was firstly imperative to compile the data about the women working on various hierarchical levels in randomly selected universities. Afterwards, it can be established if the majority of the women were working in lower hierarchical positions in universities? Based on literature review, it can be assumed if the majority of women are working on the lower hierarchical levels and if they want to access higher hierarchical levels, on the way to climb the hierarchical ladder, they might experience barriers, exploitation and bigoted treatments. Therefore, the central hypothesis of the research has developed as following:-

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Various personal, organisational and societal barriers may inhibit women in accessing higher hierarchical positions in universities.

The indicator measured to access higher hierarchical positions in universities in this research would be scientific productivity (number of publications) as an essential indicator of the advancement of the academic career (position). Along with personal, organisational and societal barriers experienced by women, the multiple impediments were also explored in the study.

Simultaneously, the prevalence of harassment in society and universities were considered as an organisational and societal impediment for women, so the second primary focus of the study was to explore the extent to which Harassment Act (2010) was implemented in the study. As it was assumed that lack of implementation of Act would lead to incivility spiral (low-intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm the target). In order to measure the implementation of Harassment Act (2010) in universities, firstly by conducting a survey, the awareness level of women respondents (Lecturer/Research-Administrative Assistant – Professor) regarding the implementation of Act was analysed and in the second phase of the study, the head of departments/institutes/heads (Chapter 5) were interviewed to explore that to what extent they were adhering to the directions of Higher

Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC) regarding the implementation as heads were responsible for implementing the Act. Therefore, the second leading hypothesis of the study was:-

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Inadequate Implementation of Protection against Harassment of Women in the Workplace Act, (2010) promotes the bigotry against women in universities.

To measure the H1 and H2, a Triangulation research method was designed, firstly, a survey of women working in different hierarchical positions (Lecturer/Research Assistant/Administrative Assistant - Professor) in large and small public, large private and large public-private universities was conducted. So, in the survey, the population of the study was women employed in four different types of universities working on various hierarchical levels. The main purpose of the survey was to compile the data about the hierarchical positions of employed women in universities and record the prevalence of personal, organisational and societal barriers which could impede them in accessing the higher hierarchical positions. Simultaneously, the survey also intended to measure the awareness level of respondents regarding the implementation of Harassment Act (2010). Afterwards, this part of the study would be verified by conducting the in-depth interviews with heads.

Secondly, semi-structured interviews (chapter 5) with the head of departments, directors and deans of institutes working in public, private and public-private universities were done. The inclusion of Heads in interviews was intentional as they were responsible for the implementation of Workplace Harassment Act (2010) in universities as per Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC) implementation policy guidelines. Concurrently, in interviews, the reasons for women working on lower hierarchical position and barriers in accessing the higher hierarchical positions were also explored.

Thirdly, the observation carried to explore, if the harassment Act was displayed in the Department and Institutes. As it was a mandatory implementation step as per HEC implementation guidelines.

Before testing the central inquiry of the study, the background information (4.2) of the respondents regarding the type of university where they employed, their corresponding departments and academic faculties were discussed. Simultaneously, the personal data (4.3)

of the respondents was compiled in which their age, level of education, job experience, marital status, family size, family structure and dual role conflicts were discussed.

Following the background and personal information, the professional information (4.4) of the respondents in which the hierarchical positions of respondents in various universities, their publication productivity, participation in national and international academic conferences and their teaching workload was compiled.

Before measuring the impediments in accessing the higher hierarchical positions, the main criteria (4.5) to achieve the higher positions was discussed.

Finally, the awareness level of the respondents (Survey) regarding the implementation of Harassment Act (2010) (4.10) in various universities was measured. It was a cross-comparison of in-depth interviews with the head of departments/schools/institutes (Chap 5) for the steps taken by heads for the implementation of Harassment Act.

4.2 Background Information of the Respondents

First background information of the respondents will be described in the following section;

4.2.1 Distribution of Respondents According to Universities

The current study has been conducted in four different universities of Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan, To make a comparison; four different types of universities were selected randomly. All four of them vary in size, functioning, and infrastructure. A large public university was funded by public means through a Federal or Provisional Government, it has various Faculties and Departments, and it was primarily bound to follow the Government policies. The variety of universities in the sample was intentional and helped to design the study, as a study by Iqbal, Arif & Abbas (2011) in Pakistan compared the Human Resource Management (HRM) practices of public and private universities. The study findings proved that both types of universities differ significantly in the job description, training and development, compensation, teamwork and employee participation was better in the public universities than the private universities (Iqbal, Arif & Abbas, 2011). To compare the experiences of women

in different universities, the inclusion of various types of universities in the sample was intentional. It has been established by research in Pakistan that experiences of public and private universities were different (Ayub, 2014). As a study has been conducted at Karachi University, Pakistan suggested that significant difference was found between private and public university teacher's performance (Ayub, 2014). So, the variation by employed women's experience and practices in each university could be significant.

Table 1 Distribution of Respondents in Universities

| University Type | Respondents | Percentage |
|---------------------------------|-------------|------------|
| Large Public University | 201 | 48.9 |
| Large Public-Private University | 91 | 22.1 |
| Large Private University | 87 | 21.2 |
| Small Public University | 32 | 7.8 |
| Total | 411 | 100.0 |

The majority 49 percent respondents were selected from the large public university. In Pakistan, universities receive guidance and are partially regulated by the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC), (*formerly the University Grants Commission*). The second university was also a public sector university, was small and somehow new, only 8 percent respondents contributed to it (as the number of faculty members was lesser). At the same time, the third university was the combination of public-private sector, it was partially funded by the Government and partly by private means and 22 percent participant contributed to it. However, the fourth University was a private, was solely funded by private groups or organisations. They formulate their own rules and regulations, but, they still needed certain criteria's to be fulfilled to be recognised by HEC. Otherwise, its degrees could not be recognised by the HEC. There was 21 percent respondents from it. Nonetheless, all four universities in the sample were categorised as 'General universities' by HEC. However, they varied on operational functioning.

4.2.2 Departmental Distribution of Respondents

The sample of the study consisted of academic departments, institutes and schools. In academic departments/ institutes/schools along with the academic faculty, there were administrative sections as well. So, the women faculty and the women working in administrative sections of academic departments were the target population of the study.

Table 2 Departmental Distribution of Respondents

| Department | Respondents | Percentage |
|----------------|-------------|------------|
| Academic | 375 | 91.1 |
| Administration | 36 | 8.9 |
| Total | 411 | 100.0 |

The majority of the respondents, 91 percent were from academic departments. The most of the women were working in research and teaching departments compared to women employed in administrative sections. The number of women employed in administration (of academic departments) was as low as 9 percent. Those who were working in the administration have mostly been on lower hierarchical positions compared to women employed in academic positions. Mainly, they were doing administrative work in academic departments.

Subsequently, in universities, there were separate administrative departments as well, which perhaps were not included in the sample.

4.2.3 Academic Faculties of Respondents

For the present study, the eight faculties were randomly selected from the large and small public, private and public-private universities. All the departments in randomly selected faculty/ institute were included afterwards. The women employed in the departments working from Lecture to Professor were the target population. At the same time, in each randomly selected faculty/ institute women working in the administrative section were also the part of the sample. However, in large public-private university, there were ten faculties, and three faculties did not have any women employed, so they were excluded from the sample and rest

of the seven faculties were the part of the sample. As far as the private university was concerned all the academic faculties without women staff were excluded and rest of them were the part of the sample. In the following table breakdown of the respondents regarding their faculty is shown:-

Table 3 Academic Faculty of Respondents

| Faculties | Respondents | Percentage |
|--|-------------|------------|
| Faculty of Arts and Humanities | 74 | 18.0 |
| Faculty of Commerce | 75 | 18.2 |
| Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences | 51 | 12.4 |
| Faculty of Education | 26 | 6.3 |
| Faculty of Islamic Studies | 21 | 5.1 |
| Faculty of Social Sciences | 22 | 5.4 |
| Faculty of Science/ Computer Sciences | 115 | 28.0 |
| Faculty of Law | 28 | 6.8 |
| Total | 411 | 100.0 |

Various faculties were randomly selected in the sample. There were 18 percent respondents from the Faculty of Arts and Humanities, Faculty of Commerce contributed 18 percent, respondents, Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences contributed 12 percent, respondents, Faculty of Education contributed 6 percent respondents, Faculty of Islamic Studies contributed 5 percent respondents, Faculty of Social Sciences included 5 percent respondents, Faculty of Science had 28 percent respondents and finally Faculty of Law shared 7 percent respondents.

4.3 Personal Information of the Respondents

In the following section, the personal information of the respondents will be discussed. What background, educational, personal credentials respondents already acquired at the time of data collection.

Table 4 Personal Information of the Respondents

| Employment Type | Regular | Contract | Visiting | | | | Total |
|--------------------|-----------|----------|----------|---------|---------------|--------|-------|
| | 301 | 94 | 16 | | | | 411 |
| | 73.2 % | 22.9 % | 3.9 % | | | | 100% |
| Level of Education | Gradut. | Masters | M.Phil. | PhD | | | |
| | 28 | 139 | 183 | 61 | | | 411 |
| | 6.8 % | 33.8 % | 44.5 % | 14.8 % | | | 100% |
| Age | 20-24 | 25-29 | 30-34 | 35-39 | 40-44 | 45+ | |
| | 84 | 127 | 117 | 35 | 33 | 15 | |
| | 20.4 % | 30.9 % | 28.5 | 8.5 % | 8.0 % | 3.6 % | |
| Years of service | 1-5 Y. | 6-10 Y. | 11-15Y. | 16-20Y. | 21+Y. | | |
| | 151 | 150 | 69 | 27 | 14 | | 411 |
| | 36.7 % | 36.5 % | 16.8 % | 6.6 % | 3.4 % | | 100% |
| Marital Status | Separated | Divorced | Widow | Married | Never Married | | |
| | 19 | 16 | 15 | 251 | 110 | | 411 |
| | 4.6 % | 3.9 % | 3.6 % | 61.1 % | 26.8 % | | 100% |
| Number of children | No child | One Kid | 2 Kids | 3 Kids | 4 Kids | 5+Kids | |
| | 164 | 98 | 82 | 38 | 23 | 6 | 411 |
| | 39.9 % | 23.8 % | 20.0 % | 9.2 % | 5.6 % | 1.5 % | 100% |
| Family Structure | Nuclear | Extended | Joint | | | | |
| | 132 | 147 | 132 | | | | 411 |
| | 32.1 % | 35.8 % | 32.1 % | | | | 100% |

Though the majority of the respondents 73 percent were working on a regular basis, this validates that they have permanent tenures. They would be able to continue their jobs until the age of retirement, i.e. 60 years. Unless there are exceptional circumstances, they can get early retirements or even the terminations. However, 23 percent were working on a contractual basis; contracts might last from six months to two years. Usually, the long-term contracts (2 years) have provisions and benefits equivalent to regular employees. Yet, contracts are subject to renewal, based on performance which is often evaluated by the head of the department after a year. Only 4 percent employees were working on the visiting basis, in various cases, they visit the departments to teach only a single or two courses. The visiting faculty often not liable to follow departmental rules, it is not even mandatory, if they are teaching in one semester they will be able to get the course in the next semester. Those working on contractual or visiting basis are more vulnerable to discriminations; they might be more non-reactive to such behaviours, as their jobs are subject to renewals and approvals from the Heads. They are less likely to complain the discrimination (Howe-Walsh &Turnbull, 2014).

The substantial number of respondents (45 %) was having a Master of Philosophy/Masters of Science (M.Phil. /MS.) Degree. Recently, most of the faculty members are inclined to improve academic qualifications by attaining higher degrees of M.Phil. /Ms. (M.Phil. /MS. is mandatory to be eligible for lecturership appointment by HEC) and perusing their PhDs. Though, 34 percent of the respondents had Master Degrees (equivalent to international Bachelors/sixteen years of education). However, only 15 percent respondents have done their PhDs. Somehow, after the new Millennium (2000) there was a robust inclination of Doctoral Studies in Pakistani academia. Generally, it takes much-extended duration to accomplish PhD in Pakistan, and a limited number of women get the opportunity to travel abroad. It might affect the low number of PhDs in Pakistani academia. As the majority of the respondents (80 %) was less than 35 years of their age, so there are still more chances to get Doctorates or higher degrees.

As far as the job experience of the respondents was concerned. The majority of the respondents were having up to ten years of service at the time of data collection. The significant proportion 37 percent of the respondents were working from 1-5 years, and

similarly, 37 percent were in-service from 6-10 years respectively. Only 3 percent respondents were having work experience of more than 21 years.

As far as the marital status of the respondents was concerned, 61 percent respondents were married. They have been juggling professional and personal lives. Although, 40 percent of the married respondents did not have a child, however, in Pakistani cultural context, if women are living in extended family, she would have more pressure of keeping equilibrium between work and family, compared to those living in the nuclear family. In the current study, 68 percent of the respondents have been living either in joint or extended families. The only 27 percent of the respondents were unmarried. They relatively have fewer domestic responsibilities and more chances to peruse professional commitments.

As far as, the number of children of the respondents was concerned, a substantial number of respondents 40 percent did not have any child. These findings are consistent with Human Development Report (2014), the influx of women in the job market has redundantly affected the family size, women are more prone to keep the family size small or keep the long gap between the two children. Although currently small family size is also encouraged by the Government of Pakistan due to a considerable population expansion (Human Development Report 2014). A significant proportion, 24 percent respondents had one child, and 20 percent respondents have two children, and only 2 percent respondents have more than five children in the sample.

In this study there were 32 percent respondents, who were living in a nuclear family, in Metropolis urban centres, 36 percent and 32 percent respondents were living in extended and joint family respectively. Many of the respondents have migrated along with their parents to the cities. Often, elder brothers or even the sisters prefer to bring their younger sibling to urban centres to have better educational and employment opportunities. That eventually leads to the extended families. Traditionally, people preferred living in extended or combined family in Pakistan. However, with changing global and developmental trends, people tend to migrate to cities to get higher education and better job opportunities. Because of mass urban migration, combine family has been weakened, but, still, most of the population prefers to live within extended and joint families. Generally, there are three types of family structure exist in Pakistan, i.e. Nuclear, Joint and extended family structure. The Nuclear family consisting of a married couple and their dependent children. Whereas joint

family consisting of a married couple, their dependent, independent, married (their children), unmarried, divorced and widowed children are all living in one household/ three married and unmarried generations are living in one household). Finally, the extended family consist of grandparents, married couple, aunts, uncles, and cousins, all living nearby or in the same household and sharing the same kitchen and sometimes having a various kitchen (Chadda, and Deb Sinha, 2013).

4.3.1 Dual Responsibilities of Respondents

It was significant to ask the respondents to what extent did they have the responsibility of managing household work and if they have any assistance or support at home? Dual responsibilities can have a severe impact on employment growth of the women, as more women do more than half of domestic work in the household (Taylor-Abdulai et al., 2014). After accomplishing all domestic tasks, women academics might have little time to work on research and professional growth (Bracken, Allen & Dean, 2006; Jayatilake et al., 2014; Peetz, Strachan & Troup, 2014).

Table 5 Dual Responsibilities of Respondents

| Daily working hours at Work | 6 Hours | 8 Hours | 10 Hours | Total |
|----------------------------------|---------------|---------------------|-------------------|---------------|
| | 59 | 298 | 54 | 411 |
| | 14.4 % | 72.5 % | 13.1 | 100% |
| Daily working hours for Family | 1-2 Hours | 3-4 Hours | 5-6 Hours | |
| | 82 | 175 | 154 | 411 |
| | 20.0 % | 42.6 % | 37.5 % | 100% |
| Assistance at home | No Assistance | Maid | Daycare | Family member |
| | 181 | 120 | 30 | 80 |
| | 44.0 | 29.2 % | 7.3 % | 19.5 % |
| | | | | 100% |
| Prime priority for working women | Family | Professional growth | Both Family & Job | |
| | 198 | 186 | 27 | 411 |
| | 48.2 % | 45.2 % | 6.6 % | 100% |

Most of the universities have eight working hours in a day and five days in a week. One-third majority 73 percent of the respondents were working eight hours in a day. On the other hand, 13 percent of the respondents were working even longer than eight hours, and they have been working at least ten hours in a day. However, the only 14 percent respondents were working six hours in a day.

After performing work duty in university, a significant majority of women were responsible for managing domestic chores (i.e. cooking, washing and cleaning). So, it was asked to the respondent, how many hours did they work for their domestic chores? In response, a significant proportion 43 percent was working 3-4 hours daily for looking after their families. Similarly, about 38 percent have been working 5-6 hours daily for managing family and housing responsibilities. However, the only 20 percent of the respondents were working 1-2 hours a day for domestic matters. This suggested the vast majority of the respondents had to manage their domestic responsibilities themselves; this could affect their personal and professional lives; they might juggle. Several respondents commented, they were not satisfied with their performance at both spheres.

It was also asked the respondents did they have any support (family member or maid) at home. It found 44 percent of the respondents did not have any support at home. They supposed to do mainly all domestic chores from cooking to cleaning and looking after kids. However, 29 percent of the respondents did have support in the form of house workers, who helped them to carry out domestic tasks. On the other hand, 20 percent of the respondents had some family members at home who could have helped them for domestic chores. The only 7 percent of the respondents have a daycare facility or another way round they were benefiting the daycare.

It was asked to the respondents, what was more critical Family or Profession for them? Though it was difficult to choose one option, somehow the question intended to measure the preferences of the women. The substantial proportion 48 percent of the respondents prefers the family over the profession or professional growth. Though many women might have been working to support their family financially and aspiring to better living standards for their kids, however, 45 percent of the respondents have favoured the professional growth. Despite the financial incentives when people come to a particular profession, it becomes compulsory to fulfil specific criteria's for the better adjustment and

standing in the profession. However, only 7 percent of the respondents thought that both family and professional growth are equally important.

There is a continuous struggle of working women to maintain the balance between work and the family. The majority of the respondents were working for eight hours in a day. Usually, a Lecturer has to teach minimum three courses (some of them were even teaching more courses for extra payments). Almost in all the universities, the classroom size was exceeding beyond the 50 students. They have to teach, develop assessment papers, evaluate the papers, quizzes, and various other assignments of students. After completing all tasks, respondents had little time in university to work on research.

Even they could not spare time at home as the majority of the women did not have any domestic support at home (generally men in Pakistan do not help with domestic chores).

4.3.2 Effect of Domestic Responsibilities on Professional Life

As the working woman has various domestic responsibilities, to keep equilibrium, they might need to take days off from work. So, a set of the question was asked to find, to what extent domestics responsibilities are affecting the professional commitments.

Table 6 Effect of Domestic Responsibilities on Professional life

| | Yes | No | Sometimes | Total |
|--|-------|-------|-----------|-------|
| Prefer leaves for domestic issues | 135 | 116 | 160 | 411 |
| | 32.8% | 28.2 | 38.9% | 100% |
| Prefer short leaves for domestic issues | 143 | 103 | 165 | 411 |
| | 34.8% | 25.1% | 40.1% | 100% |
| Stay at job after working hours | 104 | 137 | 170 | 411 |
| | 25.3% | 33.3% | 41.% | 100% |
| Work from home to accomplish assignments | 108 | 162 | 141 | 411 |
| | 26.3% | 39.4% | 34.3% | 100% |
| Prefer additional Professional tasks | 99 | 180 | 132 | 411 |
| | 24.1% | 43.8% | 32.1% | 100% |
| Preference for Nationwide travel for professional task | 171 | 90 | 150 | 411 |
| | 41.6% | 21.9% | 36.5% | 100% |

| | | | | |
|---|-------|-------|-------|------|
| Preference for International travel for professional task | 149 | 142 | 120 | 411 |
| | 36.3% | 34.5% | 29.2% | 100% |

So it was asked to the respondents, did they prefer to take leave if they have any challenge at home. In response to the question, some 33 percent of the respondents were in favour of taking leaves. Similarly, about 39 percent of the respondents informed, if it is inevitable, they have no choice left but to take off from work.

It was also asked the respondents; did they prefer to take short leaves to adjust domestic needs? Here 35 percent of the respondents said yes, it is a better arrangement in case of emergency. After performing the work, they can go back to the home early and vice versa. They explained it is a better option instead of taking a full day off. At the same time, 40 percent of the participant also said that sometimes they prefer to take a short leave instead of full day leave. However, it depends on the priority and urgency at both ends.

The majority of the respondents worked eight hours in a day in university. So, it was asked to them, do they prefer to stay in university to accomplish the incomplete task after entitled hours. Responding to query 33 percent of the respondents said they did not want to remain in work after the prescribed workload and time. However, 25 percent of the respondents stated that they would like to stay at work to accomplish incomplete tasks. Although, 41 percent of the respondents believed it depends on the nature of the task at work and their commitments at home. If it was unavoidable they would stay at work, otherwise, prefer to go home on time.

It was also substantial to ask if respondents prefer to do their incomplete assignments at home. The significant proportion 39 percent of the respondents said they did not like to take the university's work at home. They explained, due to prolonged working hours, they only have a few hours to spend at home. So they did not prefer to bring work at home. Although 26 percent of the respondents said, they did work at home to get the assignment done in time. Instead, 34 percent of the respondents told bringing work at home depends on timings and task in an academic year. If deadlines for papers or assignment evaluation are approaching, they might bring some work at home, otherwise, they did not prefer to bring professional work at home.

The respondents asked if they prefer to take extra duties or tasks in university. In response 44 percent of the respondents professed, they did not prefer to take additional duties (they were already overburdened with courses, thesis supervision, evaluations and assessment). However, 24 percent of the respondents admitted they prefer to take additional duties. In contrast, 32 percent of the respondents said, they would not prefer voluntarily, but it highly depends on task and timings in the academic year. Some of them also expressed, occasionally they prefer to take added duties if they have time to adjust additional work to their prescribed work. The respondents further added to the explanation that seldom they could not deny taking the extra work as seniors or Heads directed them to do so.

Some other studies have also indicated that travelling for Conferences and Workshop is somehow mandatory for success and promotion in an academic career. It is vital in a university culture to have networks and an opportunity to travel nationally and internationally for conferences and training workshops, and Jones et al. (2012) found that some women excluded from opportunity networks hence lack the social capital (Bourdieu, 1986). So, it was asked to the respondents did they like to travel nationwide for professional assignments (Conferences and Training workshops). As a response, 42 percent of the respondents said, they would like to travel. However, 37 percent of the respondents stated that they would prefer to travel if they have someone to take care of kids and family because their kids were young. Although 22 percent of the respondents told, they did not want to travel.

In Pakistani cultural setting travelling of women alone (without accompanying a male member of the family) abroad could be a problem. Especially if a woman is unmarried (parents may have more anxieties and apprehensions regarding safety and security of unmarried women). However, in case of married women, they might be juggling work and family conflict. In unique cases, they might not be able to travel due to some cultural barriers, restrictions by husband and due to intervening in-laws. So it was also asked them did they prefer to travel abroad for professional assignments. As a response, a significant proportion, 35 percent of the respondents said they did not prefer to travel abroad. However, 36 percent said they would travel if chance has been given to them (personally and professionally). On the other hand, 29 percent of the respondents were of the view that if they could have grabbed a good opportunity, they would prefer travelling. Provided if they could manage the work

commitment and personal engagements, they would prefer to travel. These responses pointed most of the women were willing to travel if could manage work and family commitments.

4.4 Professional Information of the Respondents

Women's participation and significant progress in the paid workforce is one of the most important social changes of the last century. The large proportion of women in various organisational hierarchical levels has also increased. However, the vertical segregation is evident; women tend to cluster at lower levels (Troup & Strachan, 2014). Until very recently, the proportion of women in the decision-making positions was tiny. Still, there are only 20 percent women represented in the higher supervisory positions globally (Jayatilake et al., 2014).

The present study is designed to explore if more women were working on lower hierarchical levels, on their way to access higher hierarchical positions, they may experience various impediment to achieve academic excellence and positions of power in four randomly selected universities of Pakistan. Secondly, it is intended to explore, if women are more often working on lower hierarchical levels which factors could restrict them to access the higher hierarchical positions.

So in this section, firstly the hierarchical positions of the respondents in four different types of universities will be discussed and later the productivity, participation in broader networks and teaching workload will be examined for the central inquiry of the study in the subsequent sections.

4.4.1 Hierarchical Positions of Respondents in Universities

Firstly the respondents were distributed according to their hierarchical positions in universities at the time of data collection. In Public universities of Pakistan, the Professor is the highest academic rank. The Professor is a permanent full-time faculty member with a doctorate and post-doctoral experience, along with 15-years teaching/research experience and at least 8 years Post-Ph.D. experience. However, recently HEC has introduced that one can be Professor with 10-years Post-Ph.D. teaching/research experience along with 15 research publications with at least 5 publications in the last 5 years in HEC recognised journals.

The intermediate rank of the three professorial ranks is called Associate Professor. It is a permanent full-time regular faculty with doctorate along with post-doctoral experience with 10-years of teaching/research experience and at least 4-years Post-PhD level experience. Simultaneously someone with, 5-years post-PhD teaching/ research experience having 10 research publications, with at least 4 publications in the last 5 years could also qualify for appointment.

The beginning rank of professorial status is called Assistant Professor. Any qualifying candidate with Doctoral degree without any prior teaching/research experience could qualify. Simultaneously, the candidate with Master's degree (foreign/18 years of education) or with M.Phil. Degree (Pakistan) along with 4-years teaching/research experience in higher learning institutes could qualify for Assistant Professor Appointment.

Lastly, the Lecturer is an Instructor who meets departmental, school or college and institutional criteria may be promoted to the rank of Lecturer usually First Class Master's Degree/ BS (Hons.) (International Bachelors/ Bachelors of Science) OR equivalent degree awarded after 16 Years of education are required.

In private universities the academics ranks almost remain same; however, they may vary in pay scales. As far as the data for women working in administrative/lab sections were concerned, most of them working in the Registration/Administration offices and laboratory of academic departments. Their pay scale/hierarchical positions were lower than Lecturer. The highest hierarchal level of women working in administration in the present study was Assistant Director and their pay scale (17 - BPS), and some of them were working Lab Assistant/Research and Teaching Assistant (16 - BPS), and their positions are mostly lower than the Lecturers (18-BPS)¹¹.

¹¹ Government employees working under the Basic Pay Scale (BPS) system, get the salary under the salary rules of Government of Pakistan Lecture, 18-BPS, Asstt. Prof, 19-BPS, Associate Prof. 20- BPS, Professor, 21- BPS, Research and Teaching assistant can have BPS-16, 17, BPS employees have gratuity and pension provisions at the time of retirement.

However, in universities along with BPS, there is a Tenure Track System (TTS) as well, where one appointed for two years initially. Simultaneously, one might holds promise to be granted permanent Tenure, within next four years for Associate Professor/Professor and

So for the analysis Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents were clump together and other professorial ranks remained separated. The purpose of this section is to explore the hierarchical positions of the respondents in various universities of the study.

Table 7 Hierarchical Positions of Respondents in Universities

| Hierarchical Positions | Respondents | Percentage |
|--|-------------|------------|
| Lecturer and below (Lower academic Hierarchy) | 276 | 67.2 |
| Assistant Professor (beginning Professorial rank) | 92 | 22.4 |
| Associate Professor (Intermediate Professorial rank) | 24 | 5.8 |
| Professor (full Professorial rank) | 19 | 4.6 |
| Total | 411 | 100.0 |

The findings of the current survey showed that significant majority 67 percent of the respondents were working as a Lecturer and below hierarchical positions. The Lecturer is lowest hierarchical level in the academics. Similarly, 22 percent of the respondents were working as Assistant Professor (beginning Professorial rank), and 6 percent of the respondents were working as Associate Professor (Intermediate Professorial rank). However, there were only 5 percent women Professors (full Professorial rank), indicates that most of the women were working in the lower academic hierarchy.

within six years for Assistant Professor. The salary scales are all inclusive and no other allowance (PhD. allowance, medical allowance, orderly allowance etc.), or benefit will be admissible to the concerned faculty members, except gratuity equal to one month's pay for each completed year of service. For this purpose the pay would mean the last pay drawn after each completed year of service (HEC, 2016).

Private Universities have entirely difference pay scales.

So, for uniformity, instead of using hierarchical scale in terms of pay scale, present research has used the naming of hierarchical levels/ i.e. Lecturer and Below - Professors.

Thus, the respondents were more often working as Lecturer and below hierarchy compared to Professor. These trends are consistent with many developed parts of the world, as a broad gender gap and vertical segregation have persisted over the years at all levels of academic disciplines globally. This problem is most acute at the senior-most levels of academic and professional hierarchies (Carr et al., 2015). Similarly, in Europe concerning men, it is found that women at all levels of education far worse than their male counterparts who have comparable education credentials. Women's academic career in Europe evidently has categorised by high vertical segregation. In 2010, women represented only 44 % of Lecturers/ Instructor (Grade C), 37 % of Associate Professor (Grade B) and 20 % of Full Professor (Grade A) academic staff (ECU, 2013).

As far as the findings of this study with reference to Pakistan was concerned, the Punjab Development Statistics (2013) revealed that there was rise in the recruitment of women in universities of Pakistan and in 2002-03, there were only 708 (total 1753, 40.3 %) female teaching staff working at various hierarchical levels in general universities of Punjab (one of the biggest populous province of Pakistan). However, till 2011-12 the number of teaching staff in universities has raised to 4976 (42.8 %) from 2132 in universities' of Punjab. This data claimed the majority of the women were working at lower hierarchical levels without compiling the hierarchically segregated data. However, in the absence of extensive gender segregated national and international data and surveys regarding the proportion of women working at various hierarchical levels in Pakistani universities, it is challenging to generalise the findings of this study. However, the baseline data of this study is inconsistent with the data of commonwealth university's survey (Singh, 2008) regarding the women Professors and Deans in Pakistan, as in this study the proportion of women working on top professorial rank is much lower. However, the gender-segregated data regarding one of the largest university of Pakistan's of its staff working on various hierarchical levels (PU Factbook, 2012) showed the similar trends to this study that there were vertical segregation and women were most often working on the lower echelon of the academic hierarchy. However, in this study, the proportion of women Professors is far lower than the rest of the world. Although, the proportion of respondents at Professorial rank was lower, however, it was acute at intermediate and full Professorial ranks.

4.4.2 Publications of Respondents

Currently, teaching and research are going to be more specialised. In recent times, in the USA, the faculty is engaged either in teaching or research. However, the actual publication productivity of American academics has been reduced over the past 15 years 1992–2007 (Finkelstein, 2014). Some other studies also indicated the same trend as Jones et al. (2012) study have found that faculty members found themselves more overburdened with teaching and they concentrate less on research. Another study revealed that in general, academics tend to publish less in recent years to a highly competitive and specialised work. They tend to put more work in teachings compared to research and publication unless they are appointed solely for research (Rajiv, Chu, & Jiang, 2015). Seemingly, academic work and careers in academia evolve diversification within institutional types and academic fields which mainly depend on the type of appointment (regular, full-time, vs part-time and limited-term). However, research publications earned enormous weight in promotions of the faculty compared to teaching specialisations (Finkelstein, 2014).

Consistent with international trends the publications of academics is considered crucial in Pakistani universities as well. So, the respondents were asked about the number of publications they had. According to the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC), it is essential to produce a specific number of publications to access the particular higher positions in universities. As per the designated criteria, despite having higher academic degrees and job experience, one cannot access the higher hierarchical positions in Pakistan without publishing a required number of research papers designated for each hierarchical position in the university¹².

¹² **Assistant Professor:** There is no requirement of Publication (s). **Associate Professor:** The candidate must have 10 research publications (with at least 4 publications in the last 5 years in the HEC recognized Journals). **Professor:** The candidate must have 15 research publications with at least 5 publications in the last 5 years in HEC recognized journals.

Table 8 Overall Publications of Respondents

| | | | Hierarchy | | | | Total |
|--------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|---------------------|---------------------|------------|--------|
| | | | Lecture & Below | Assistant Professor | Associate Professor | Professors | |
| Overall | 0 | Count | 196 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 201 |
| Publications | Publication | % within H. | 71.0 % | 3.3 % | 8.3 % | 0.0 % | 48.9 % |
| | 1-4 | Count | 68 | 43 | 5 | 1 | 117 |
| | Publication | % within H. | 24.6 % | 46.7 % | 20.8 % | 5.3 % | 28.5 % |
| | 5+ | Count | 12 | 46 | 17 | 18 | 93 |
| | Publication | % within H. | 4.3 % | 50.0 % | 70.8 % | 94.7 % | 22.6 % |
| Total | | Count | 276 | 92 | 24 | 19 | 411 |
| | | % within H. | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0% |

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 71 percent did not have any publication. By contrast, 0 percent Professors respondents did not have any publication. Thus, the Lecture and below respondents are non-productive more often (+ 71 percentage points).

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 4 percent has five and more publications. By contrast, 95 percent Professor has five and more publications. Thus the Professors are highly productive (+ 91 percentage points).

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 25 percent have 1-4 publication. By contrast, 5 percent Professors have 1-4 publication. Thus the respondents with 1-4 publications are working as Lecturer and below hierarchical level more often (+ 20 percentage points). This is 22 percentage points less than Assistant Professors 47 percent and 4 percentage points more than Associate Professors 21 percent. Thus the Assistant Professors were more productive with 1-4 publications than the other respondents.

As per hierarchical positions, Lecture and below respondents are non-productive more often as compared to Professor (0 %, + 71 percentage points). The Professor respondents 95 percent were highly productive with five and more publications. However, the Assistant Professors were more often productive with 1-4 publications as compared to all other respondents and the Associate Professors 71 percent were more often productive with five and more publications as compared to Lecturer and below and Assistant Professor respondents.

Although, the higher number of publications was mandatory for Professor to achieve Professorial rank. Consequently, the respondents working on higher Professorial ranks were

more often highly productive as compared to respondents working on beginning Professorial rank and Lecturer. However, when assessing the productivity of the respondents, it is essential to consider the fact that the question in the questionnaire used to measure the productivity was in last five years reference period. According to Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC), last five years reference period of productivity would be crucial along with fulfilling the overall threshold of publications required to access promotion or appointment to higher professorial ranks. Accordingly, the productivity of respondents does not necessarily imply that these publications occurred in the recent semester. However, the finding confirmed that respondents who were working as Professors and Associate Professors at the time of data collection were highly productive in last five years.

Simultaneously, it is important to note that respondents working in lower hierarchical positions were least or non-productive more often in last five years so that it can be assumed, it is less likely they would be able to climb the hierarchical ladder in the near future without fulfilling the prerequisite criteria to access higher hierarchical positions.

4.3.2.1 Distribution of Publications: International Impact Factor Publication

The respondents, who had publications, were asked to fill the information on types of publications, they had. Again, according to the HEC, it is not only required to produce a certain number of academic publications, somewhat scientifically acclaimed publications are a prerequisite to access higher positions and promotions in universities. There are rules for international and national publications standards, academicians required to publish according to HEC's designated standards¹³; it is obligatory to fulfil the criteria. The publications

¹³ **W Category:** Journals having an impact factor and included in the Journal Citation Report (JCR) of ISI web of knowledge. **X Category:** Journals not having an impact factor, Verified by HEC that they meet all HEC journal criteria and have a paper reviewed by at least one expert from an academically advanced country in the respective discipline. **Y Category:** Journals not having an impact factor. They meet all HEC journal criteria except a review of each paper by at least one expert from an academically advanced country in the respective discipline (HEC, 2015).

without designated standards would not be considered for appointments and promotions in universities. So it is assumed that respondents working on higher hierarchical positions would be highly productive internationally. Therefore it hypothesises:-

Hypothesis: Respondents working in higher hierarchical positions will be highly productive internationally as compared to respondents working on lower hierarchical positions.

Table 9 International Impact Factor Publications of Respondents

| | | | Hierarchical Position | | | | Total |
|--------------------------------------|--------------|-------------|-----------------------|----------------|----------------|-----------|---------|
| | | | Lecturer & below | Assistant Prof | Associate Prof | Professor | |
| International impact factor journals | 0 | Count | 241 | 39 | 8 | 1 | 289 |
| | Publication | % within H. | 87.3 % | 42.4 % | 33.3 % | 5.3 % | 70.3 % |
| | 1-4 | Count | 34 | 43 | 13 | 3 | 93 |
| | Publication | % within H. | 12.3 % | 46.7 % | 54.2 % | 15.8 % | 22.6 % |
| | 5 and + | Count | 1 | 10 | 3 | 15 | 29 |
| | Publications | % within H. | 0.4 % | 10.9 % | 12.5 % | 78.9 % | 7.1 % |
| Total | | Count | 276 | 92 | 24 | 19 | 411 |
| | | % within H. | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % |

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 87 percent did not have any publication in international impact factor journals. By contrast, 5 percent Professors respondents did not have any publication. Thus, the Lecture and below respondents are non-productive in international impact factors journals more often (+ 82 percentage points).

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 0 percent has five and more publication in international impact factor journals. By contrast, 79 percent Professors have five and more publication in international impact factor journals. Thus the Professors are highly productive in international impact factor journals (+ 79 percentage points).

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 12 percent have 1-4 publications in international impact factor journals. By contrast, 16 percent Professors have 1-4 publications in international impact factor journals. Thus the Professors are highly productive with 1-4 publications in international impact factor journals (+ 4 percentage points). This is 31 percentage points less than Assistant Professors 47 percent and 38

percentage points less than Associate Professors 54 percent. Thus the Lecturer and below respondents were least productive in international impact factor journals.

As the 3 cell (25 %) have expected count less than 5 (expected count less than 5 > 20% = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio observed, and it yielded a significant result (Likelihood Ratio = 173.905; d.f. = 6; $p < .001$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population; the Professors respondents have five and more publications in international impact factors journals more often. The strength of association is very strong (Cramer's V .54).

In terms of analysis based on hierarchical positions, there were four categories and Lecture and below respondents are non-productive in international impact factors journals more often as compared to Professor (5 %, + 82 percentage points). Hence, the Professor respondents were highly productive with five and more publication (79 %, +79 percentage points). Thus the hypothesis is supported.

Although a higher number of publications were mandatory for Professor to achieve their Professorial rank, however, when assessing the productivity of the respondents, it is important to consider the fact that the question in the questionnaire used to measure the productivity was in last five years reference period. However, the finding confirmed that respondents who were working as Professors at the time of data collection were highly productive in International impact factor Journals in last five years.

Simultaneously, it is important to note that respondents working in lower hierarchical positions were least or non-productive in International impact factor Journals more often in last five years, so it can be assumed, it is less likely they would be able to climb the hierarchical ladder in near future without fulfilling the prerequisite criteria to access higher hierarchical positions.

4.3.2.2 Distribution of Publications: National Impact Factor Publication

The standard set by HEC for publications remained same in case of national publications of respondents as well, as mentioned above for international publications. So the following section measured the national impact factor publications of the respondents as per the hierarchical positions of the respondents. So again, it is assumed that respondents

working on higher hierarchical positions would be highly productive nationally. Therefore it hypothesises:-

Hypothesis: Respondents working in higher hierarchical positions will be highly Productive nationally as compared to respondents working on lower hierarchical positions.

Table 10 National Impact Factor Publications of Respondents

| | | | Hierarchy | | | | Total |
|--|---------------|-------------|--------------------|----------------|-------------------|-----------|---------|
| | | | Lecturer &below | Asstt. Prof | Associate Prof | Professor | |
| Publications in impact factor National journals Total | 0 Publication | Count | 246 | 41 | 8 | 5 | 300 |
| | | % within H. | 89.1 % | 44.6 % | 33.3 % | 26.3 % | 73.0 % |
| | 1-4 | Count | 29 | 42 | 10 | 6 | 87 |
| | Publication | % within H. | 10.5 % | 45.7 % | 41.7 % | 31.6 % | 21.2 % |
| | 5 and + | Count | 1 | 9 | 6 | 8 | 24 |
| | Publications | % within H. | 0.4 % | 9.8 % | 25.0 % | 42.1 % | 5.8 % |
| | | Count | 276 | 92 | 24 | 19 | 411 |
| | | % within H. | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % | 100.0 % |

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 89 percent did not have any publication in national impact factor journals. By contrast, 26 percent Professors respondents did not have any publication. Thus, the Lecture and below respondents are non-productive in national impact factors journals more often (+ 63 percentage points).

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 0 percent has five and more publication in national impact factor journals. By contrast, 42 percent Professors have five and more publication in national impact factor journals. Thus the Professors are highly productive in national impact factor journals (+42 percentage points). This is 32 percentage points more than Assistant Professors 10 percent and 27 percentage points more than Associate Professors 25 percent.

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 11 percent have a 1-4 publication in national impact factor journals. By contrast, 32 percent Professors have a 1-4 publication in national impact factor journals. Thus the Professors are more often productive with 1-4 publications in national impact factor journals (+21 percentage points) as compared to Lecturer and below respondents. This is 14 percentage points less than Assistant Professors

46 percent and 10 percentage points less than Associate Professors 42 percent. Thus the Assistant Professors respondents are highly productive with 1-4 publications in national impact factor journals.

As the 3 cell (25 %) have expected count less than 5 (expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio observed, and it yielded a significant result (Likelihood Ratio = 167.939; d.f. = 6; $p < .001$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population; the Professors respondents have five and more publications in national impact factor journals more often. The strength of association is very strong (Cramer's V .55).

Again with reference to the hierarchical positions, Lecture and below hierarchical level respondents are non-productive in national impact factors journals more often as compared to Professor (26 %, + 63 percentage points). Interestingly Assistant Professor (46 %, + 35 percentage points) and Associate Professors (42 %, +31 percentage points) with one to four publications were also more productive than Lecturer and below respondents (11 %). Similar to overall findings the Professor respondents were 42 percentage points highly productive with five and more publication as compared to Lecturer and below, 10 percentage points more productive than Assistant Professors and 25 percentage points more productive than the Associate Professors. So the respondents' working on higher hierarchical positions Professors was more often productive in nationally accredited publishers. Thus the hypothesis is supported.

As far as the publication of respondents within nationally accredited journals was concerned, it was found that Professors were highly productive among all other respondents and Assistant and Associate Professors were more often productive as compared to Lecturer and below hierarchical respondents in last five years. Consistent with international publication trends of respondents, here again, respondents working on Professorial ranks were more often productive.

4.4.3 Conference Attendance for Professional Growth

Many of the researchers (Taylor-Abdulai et al., 2014; Shen, 2013; Jones et al., 2012; Uche & Jack, 2014) have already suggested as a part of academic responsibilities, it is

important for faculty to be the part of broader networks and participation in various conferences and other professional endeavours.

Opportunity networks, national and international travels are essential for professional growth in academia, and Jones et al. (2012) found that some women 'excluded from opportunity networks. At the same time, Uche and Jack (2014) found female academic participation in developmental programs and their mobility in the system needed to be boosted. They recommended increased institutional efforts can gear towards encouraging female academic staff development through grants, sponsorship of research, to seminars/conferences. Consistent with Bourdieu (1986) participation of women in training and workshops would strengthen the social capital of female academics, while it is a powerful personal asset that gives individual's access to useful resources and can improve their position. Lack of such social capital would further impede the women's advancement.

4.4.3.1 Abroad Conference Participation of Respondents

The literature has suggested that social networking, participation in academic conferences and other professional endeavours are significant for the growth of academicians. So, in the following section, the respondents were asked about the international participation in academic conferences, and it was correlated with their hierarchical positions, to see to what extent people working on lower hierarchical positions were given a chance to be the part of broader networks. The following hypothesis developed:-

Hypothesis: Respondents working in higher hierarchical positions will be highly participating internationally in broader networking forums as compared to respondents working in lower hierarchical positions.

Table 11 Abroad Conferences Participation of Respondents

| | | | Hierarchy | | | | Total |
|--|---------------|-------------|--------------------|----------------|-------------------|-----------|--------|
| | | | Lecturer &below | Asstt. Prof | Associate Prof | Professor | |
| Number of conferences attended abroad | 0 | Count | 238 | 51 | 9 | 11 | 309 |
| | Conference(s) | % within H. | 86.2 % | 55.4 % | 37.5 % | 57.9 % | 75.2 % |
| | 1 | Count | 17 | 7 | 4 | 3 | 31 |
| | Conference(s) | % within H. | 6.2 % | 7.6 % | 16.7 % | 15.8 % | 7.5 % |
| | 2+ | Count | 21 | 34 | 11 | 5 | 71 |
| | Conference(s) | % within H. | 7.6 % | 37.0 % | 45.8 % | 26.3 % | 17.3 % |
| Total | | Count. | 276 | 92 | 24 | 19 | 411 |
| | | % within H. | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 86 percent did not have attended any abroad conference. By contrast, 58 percent Professors respondents did not have attended any abroad conference. Thus, the Lecture and below respondents are more likely not attending the abroad conferences (+ 28 percentage points).

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 8 percent have attended two and more conferences abroad. By contrast, 26 percent Professors have attended two and more conferences abroad. Thus the Professors are more often attending the abroad conferences (+ 18 percentage points). This is 11 percentage points less than Assistant Professors 37 percent and 20 percentage points less than Associate Professors 46 percent. Thus, the Associate Professor respondents are more likely attending the abroad conferences.

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 6 percent have attended one conference abroad. By contrast, 16 percent Professors have attended one conference abroad. Thus the Professors are more often attending the one abroad conference (+ 10 percentage points). This is 8 percentage points more than Assistant Professors 8 percent and 1 percentage points less than Associate Professors 17 percent. Thus, the Associate Professor respondents are more likely attending the abroad conferences.

As the 4 cell (33 %) have expected count less than 5 (expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio observed, and it yielded a significant result (Likelihood Ratio = 64.830; d.f. = 6; $p < .001$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population; the Associate Professors respondents more likely have attended two and more abroad conferences. The strength of association is moderate (Cramer's V .29).

There were four categories in this section based on the hierarchical positions, Lecture and below respondents are less likely participating in international networking opportunities (academic conferences) as compared to Professor (58 %, -28 percentage points). Interestingly, Assistant Professor (37 %, +11 percentage points) and Associate Professors (46 %, + 20 percentage points) with two and more international conferences were more likely participating in International conferences as compared to Professor respondents. It seemed that Assistant and Associate Professors who were aspiring higher positions (higher Professorial rank) were more likely willing to participate in broader networks. Thus, the hypothesis is supported that respondents working on higher hierarchical positions will be more likely participating in broader networking forums as compared to respondents working on lower hierarchical positions. However, it is also evident that respondents working on lower hierarchical positions were more likely not participating in broader networking forums. As the most of the respondents were working on lower hierarchical positions and their exclusion from broader networking opportunities could have long last effect on their position in universities.

However, it is unclear that respondents working on lower hierarchical positions were less likely willing to participate in academic conferences (as they have to write the research papers for participation) or inclusion opportunities were not being given to them so they could participate (Travel and participation funding).

When assessing the participation of the respondents in international academic conferences, it is important to consider the fact that the question in the questionnaire used to measure the participation was in last five years reference period. It was assumed that participation in the academic conference would lead to more publications (in most of the good academic conferences, the participants get their presented paper published in Journals). According to Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC), last five years reference period of productivity along with overall productivity would be measured in case of promotion or appointment to higher professorial ranks.

4.4.3.2 Within Country Conference Participation of Respondents

In the following section, the respondents were asked about the within-country participation in academic conferences, and it was correlated with their hierarchical positions, to see to what extent people working on lower hierarchical positions were given a chance to be the part of broader networks. The following hypothesis developed:-

Hypothesis: Respondents working in higher hierarchical positions will be highly participating in within-country broader networking forums as compared to respondents working in lower hierarchical positions.

Table 12 Within Country Conferences Participation of Respondents

| | | | Hierarchy | | | | Total |
|--|---------------|-------------|---------------------|----------------|-------------------|-----------|--------|
| | | | Lecturer & below | Asstt. Prof | Associate Prof | Professor | |
| Number of conferences attended within country Total | 0 | Count | 209 | 44 | 11 | 11 | 275 |
| | Conference(s) | % within H. | 75.7 % | 47.8 % | 45.8 % | 57.9 % | 66.9 % |
| | 1 | Count | 26 | 19 | 0 | 4 | 49 |
| | Conference(s) | % within H. | 9.4 % | 20.7 % | 0.0 % | 21.1 % | 11.9 % |
| | 2+ | Count | 41 | 29 | 13 | 4 | 87 |
| | Conference(s) | % within H. | 14.9 % | 31.5 % | 54.2 % | 21.1 % | 21.2 % |
| | | Count | 276 | 92 | 24 | 19 | 411 |
| | | % within H. | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 76 percent did not have attended any conference within the country. By contrast, 58 percent Professors did not have attended any conference within the country. Thus, the Lecture and below respondents are more likely not attending the conferences within the country (+ 18 percentage points).

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 15 percent have attended two and more conferences within the country. By contrast, 21 percent Professors have attended two and more conferences within the country. Thus the Professors are more often attending two and more within country conferences (+ 6 percentage points). This is 11 percentage points less than Assistant Professors 32 percent, and 33 percentage points less than Associate Professors 54 percent. Thus, the Associate Professors respondents are more likely attending two and more conferences within the country.

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 9 percent have attended one conference within the country. By contrast, 21 percent Professors have attended one conference within the country. Thus the Professors are more often attending two and more within country conferences.

As the 3 cell (35 %) have expected count less than 5 (expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio observed, and it yielded a significant result (Likelihood Ratio = 42.294; d.f. = 6; $p < .001$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population; the Associate Professors respondents have more likely attended two and more within country conferences. The strength of association is moderate (Cramer's $V .23$).

With reference to the hierarchical positions, there were four categories, Lecture and below hierarchical respondents are less likely participating in national networking opportunities (academic conferences) as compared to Professor (58 %, -18 percentage points). However, this proportion of non-attendance is lower than the international participation. Interestingly again, Assistant Professor (32 %, +11 percentage points) and Associate Professors (54 %, + 33 percentage points) with two and more international conferences were more likely participating in national conferences as compared to Professor respondents (21 %). However, the proportion of Assistant, Associate Professor and Professors for attending the within-country academic conferences was higher than the Lecturer and below respondents. Thus the hypothesis is supportive that respondents working on higher hierarchical positions will be more likely participating in broader networking forums as compared to respondents working in lower hierarchical positions.

Again it is unclear that respondents working on lower hierarchical positions were less likely willing to participate in academic conferences (as they have to write the research papers for participation) or opportunities are not being given to them so they could participate (Travel and participation funding).

It is important to note that in abroad and within country conference participations proportion of Associate Professors and Assistant Professor's attendance was higher than the Professors. The increased participation of beginning and intermediate professorial rank respondents could be attributed to augmented funding opportunities available recently in Pakistan by HEC, and participants who were pursuing higher professorial ranks could be

more enthusiastic to avail such opportunities to enhance the social capital instead of Professors, who already have achieved the highest rung.

4.4.4 Teaching Workload of Respondents

Some studies have highlighted that women tend to have higher Lecturing, assistance and administrative workloads. However, these academic duties are overlooked in the promotion, as promotional criteria emphasised on research and publication outputs (Peetz, Strachan & Troup, 2014). A case study was conducted in Sri Lanka to find the perceived personal barriers that inhibit the career development of women. The study inferred the impediments that there was a lack of organisational support, extensive tasks, teaching and administrative workload (Britton, 2010; Jayatilake et al., 2014).

The extensive teaching workload leads to low research productivity, which eventually leads to the low proportion of women in academic excellence and positions of power. Simultaneously, Morley (2006) stated, the workload in university is a significant consideration. The exclusion of women from career development opportunities, prejudice about women's academic abilities and intellectual authority, poor equality policy implementation and backlash to affirmative action could seriously impede the women's career success (Morley, 2006). Some other researchers have also proved women tend to have higher lecturing and academic workloads, so, as a consequence women have fewer publications (Fridner et al., 2015; Schlegelmilch & Diamantopoulos, 2015) which lead to lower chances to attain higher academic positions.

So, it was essential to ask the respondents, what their prescribed teaching workload was¹⁴. Again here HEC has also devised the minimum Teaching workload standard for

¹⁴ The semester is comprised of thirty two lectures per semester in sixteen weeks. Three credit hours (CH) course consists of three hours (180 min) teaching per week, whereas the duration of each lecture is one and half hour (90 min). Teaching workload of three courses (3CH) per semester comprised of six lectures (90 min of each lecture) of teaching per week along with consultancy during office hours.

academics working on various hierarchical levels. Although variations in teaching workload requirements seen in various universities, however, most of the universities keep the 3-4 courses of 3 credit hours (3CH) for Assistant Professors and Lecturer, and 2-3 courses of 3 credit hours (3CH) for Professors and Associate Professors consecutively.

It was intended to measure the teaching workload of respondents working on various hierarchical levels, most of the respondents in the study were working as Lecturer and below, and so higher teaching workload of respondents is assumed. So it hypothesises:-

Hypothesis: - Respondents working in lower hierarchical positions have higher teaching workload as compared to respondents working in higher hierarchical positions.

Table 13 Teaching Workload of Respondents in a Semester

| | | | Hierarchy | | | | Total |
|-------------------|----------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|----------------|-----------|--------|
| | | | Lecturer | Asstt. Prof | Associate Prof | Professor | |
| Teaching Workload | 2 Course (s) | Count | 26 | 27 | 16 | 10 | 79 |
| | | % within H. | 12.4 % | 29.3 % | 76.2 % | 58.8 % | 23.3 % |
| | 3 Course (s) | Count | 139 | 50 | 5 | 5 | 199 |
| | | % within H. | 66.5 % | 54.3 % | 23.8 % | 29.4 % | 58.7 % |
| | 4&+ Course (s) | Count | 44 | 15 | 0 | 2 | 61 |
| | | % within H. | 21.1 % | 16.3 % | 0.0 % | 11.8 % | 18.0 % |
| Total | Count | | 209 | 92 | 21 | 17 | 339 |
| | % within H. | | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Of the Lecturer hierarchical level respondents, 12 percent have 2 courses teaching workload. By contrast, 59 percent Professors respondents have 2 courses teaching workload. Thus, the Lecture and below respondents are more likely not having 2 courses teaching workload (- 47 percentage points).

Of the Lecturer hierarchical level respondents, 21 percent have 4 and more courses teaching workload. By contrast, 12 percent Professors have 4 and more courses teaching workload. Thus, the Lecturers were more often teaching 4 and more courses (+ 9 percentage points).

Of the Lecturer hierarchical level respondents, 67 percent have three courses teaching workload. By contrast, 29 percent Professors have three courses teaching workload. Thus the

Lecturers were more often teaching three courses (+ 38 percentage points). This is 13 percentage points more than Assistant Professors 54 percent and 43 percentage points more than Associate Professors 24 percent. It seems that Lecturer respondents have 3 courses workload more often.

There were 18 percent (72) respondents working in administrative departments, teaching, research and lab assistant, out of them, there were 9 percent respondents who were working exclusively in administration, however rest of 9 percent was working teaching, research and lab assistant, who were categorised as academic faculty in (4.2.2), were teaching in certain cases one course, they were excluded in this section, as they might not have publications requirement working in these positions. So, they were excluded from teaching workload criteria. As the Professors were minimally teaching at least 2 courses per semester, so the distribution of courses started from 2 courses workload.

As the 4 cell (33 %) have expected count less than 5 (expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio observed, and it yielded a significant result (Likelihood Ratio = 56.458; d.f. = 6; $p < .001$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population; the Lecturer respondents have three and more courses teaching workload most often. The strength of association is moderate (Cramer's V .30).

Comparing the results based on the hierarchical positions, Lecturer respondents are more likely having high teaching workload as compared to Assistant, Associate and Professor. Although, it was obvious that teaching workload is distributed according to hierarchical positions and senior academics were most likely having few teaching assignments. Thus the hypothesis is supported that respondents working in lower hierarchical positions have higher teaching workload as compared to respondents working in higher hierarchical positions.

However, other studies have recommended that high teaching workload could impede accessing the higher positions, as faculty members have less time to concentrate on research and other academic activities (Fridner et al., 2015; Schlegelmilch & Diamantopoulos, 2015). The senior academics could have assistance in the form of Research/Teaching assistants who could set and mark the papers and assignments, so they can even concentrate more on research productivity. On the contrary, junior respondents have to accomplish the entire tasks single-handedly along with invigilation of the exam, managing and assisting extra and co-

curricular activities in the departments. Lately, the classroom size is expanding and exceeding to 60 students per class, so the two written examinations (mid and final term), one term paper and one to two presentation per semester for one course of teaching could have immense teaching workload. Resultantly, respondents working in lower hierarchical positions left with little time to concentrate on research.

When assessing the teaching workload of the respondents, it is essential to consider the fact that the question in the questionnaire used to measure the prescribed teaching workload in a semester. The courses respondents were teaching on top of their prescribed workload were excluded in this analysis, as the faculty member could earn the monetary benefit of extra teaching (if a faculty member were teaching more than the prescribed workload, they get additional payment for it), so many of them prefer taking additional workloads.

4.5 Pre-Requisites to Access Higher Hierarchical Positions

In the present research 67 percent respondents were working as Lecturer, and below hierarchical levels (lowest academic hierarchy), 22 percent were working as Assistant Professors (beginning rank of Professorial status), 6 percent respondents were working as Associate Professors (intermediate rank of Professorial status) and only 5 percent respondents were working as Professors (top rank of Professorial status). The significant majority young (20-29 year old) respondents (most likely Lecturer and below respondents) did not have any publication. On the contrary, older respondents (35 years and older) were 45 percentage points more productive than the young respondents. At the same time, 86 percent and 76 percent Lecture and below respondents have not attended the international and national academic conferences, and finally, 67 percent of Lecturer were teaching 3 courses per semester.

However, the research on the academic growth of faculty has pointed that least academic publications, exclusion from broader academic networks, and higher teaching workloads are impediments to access the higher hierarchical position and without these social capital women are less likely to be the candidates for promotion or incentives (Bosquet, Combes, & Garc'ia-Peñalosa; Jones et al., 2012; Kimoto, 2015).

Although, literature has continuously pointed that education, job experience and publications have substantial influence in getting the higher hierarchical positions in academia (De Haan, 2015). Consistently, for the present research education, job experience and publications of the respondents were measured according to their hierarchical positions, to see that to what extent study participant's education, job experience and publications were translated into their hierarchical positions. In Pakistan, HEC has devised the criteria to access various hierarchical positions in universities (discussed in 4.4.1). The academic qualifications, publications and specific years of job experience are a prerequisite to access higher hierarchical position. So the following section measures the level of education, job experience and publication of respondents according to their hierarchical level, to understand that to what extent these three variables influence the hierarchical position of the respondents.

4.5.1 Higher Academic Qualification

So by discussion mentioned above following hypothesis derived:-

Hypothesis: Highly educated respondents achieve higher positions as compared to the lower educated respondent.

Table 14 Level of Education and Hierarchical Position of Respondents

| | | | Level of Education | | | | Total |
|-------------|-----------------|---------------|--------------------|---------|---------|--------|--------|
| | | | Graduation | Masters | M.Phil. | PhD | |
| Designation | Lecturer | Count | 25 | 137 | 114 | 0 | 276 |
| | &below | % within LoE. | 89.3 % | 98.6 % | 62.3 % | 0.0 % | 67.2 % |
| | Assistant. Prof | Count | 1 | 1 | 61 | 29 | 92 |
| | | % within LoE. | 3.6 % | 0.7 % | 33.3 % | 47.5 % | 22.4 % |
| | Associate Prof | Count | 2 | 1 | 7 | 14 | 24 |
| | | % within LoE. | 7.1 % | 0.7 % | 3.8 % | 23.0 % | 5.8 % |
| | Professor | Count | 0 | 0 | 1 | 18 | 19 |
| | | % within LoE. | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 0.5 % | 29.5 % | 4.6 % |
| Total | | Count | 28 | 139 | 183 | 61 | 411 |
| | | % within LoE. | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Of the respondents, with Graduation degree (16 years of educations after the commencement of BS (Hons) degrees) 89 percent were working as a lecturer or lower

hierarchical levels. By contrast, none of the respondent (0 %) with Doctoral degree was working as a lecturer or on lower hierarchical levels. Thus, less educated respondents were working on a lower hierarchical level more often (+ 89 percentage point).

Of the respondents, with Graduation, 0 percent was working as Professor. By contrast, 30 percent respondents with Doctoral degrees were working as Professors. Thus the respondents with Doctoral degrees were most often working as Professors (+ 30 percentage point). It seems that respondents with doctoral degrees are more likely to work on the higher hierarchical level than respondents with graduation, Master and M. Phil degrees.

Of the respondents, with graduation degree, 7 percent were working as Associate Professors. By contrast, 23 percent respondents with Doctoral degrees, were working as Associate Professors. Thus the respondents with Doctoral degrees were most often working as Associate Professor (+ 16 percentage point). This is 22 percent higher than the respondents with Master degree 1 percent and 19 percent higher than the respondents with M.Phil. degree 4 percent. It seems respondents with Doctoral degrees were working as Associate Professors more often.

Of the respondents, with Graduation degree, 4 percent were working as Assistant Professor. By contrast, 48 percent respondents with Doctoral degrees, were working as Assistant Professors. Thus the respondents with Doctoral degrees were working as Assistant Professor most often (+ 44 percentage point). This is 1 percent higher than the respondents with Master degree 1 percent and 15 percent higher than the respondents with M.Phil. degree. 33 percent. It seems respondents with Doctoral degrees were working as Assistant Professors more often compared to Associate Professors and Professor.

As the 4 cell (25 %) have expected count less than 5 (expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio was observed. The overall Likelihood Ratio yield significant result ($\chi^2 = 275.456$; d.f. = 9; $p < .001$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population. The strength of association is strong (Cramer's V .46).

According to the level of education, there were four categories and Doctoral degree is a prerequisite to attain intermediate and full professor rank; however, beginning Professorial rank (Assistant Professor) could be either attained with Doctoral degree alone or with Master degree along with research and teaching experience. It was found that respondents with

Graduation, Master and M.Phil. degrees were more likely working as Lecturer and below hierarchical level as compared to Professors (0 %, +89 percentage points with Graduation, + 99 percentage points with Master degree, + 62 percentage points with M.Phil. degree). Although, the hypothesis was supported that highly educated respondents achieve higher positions as compared to the lower educated respondent.

However 48 percent respondents with Doctoral degree were working as Assistant Professor (Beginning Professorial rank), so most of the respondents with doctoral degrees were working as Assistant Professor as compared to Professors (30 %, +18 percentage points). So it was found that despite achieving higher academic degrees respondents were more often working on lower Professorial ranks. It seemed along with academic qualification, job experience and publication would be highly crucial to access higher hierarchical positions.

4.5.2 Requisite Job Experience

Similarly, there was a hypothesis:-

Hypothesis: Respondents with more year of work experience achieve higher positions compared to those with few years of work experience.

Table 15 Work Experience and Hierarchical Position of Respondents

| | | | Work Experience | | | Total |
|-----------|--------------------|------------|--------------------|---------------------|------------------|--------|
| | | | 1-10 Years Exp. | 11-20 Years Exp. | 21+ Years Exp | |
| Hierarchy | Lecturer and below | Count | 244 | 27 | 5 | 276 |
| | | % withn WE | 81.1 % | 28.1 % | 35.7 % | 67.2 % |
| | Assistant. Prof | Count | 48 | 40 | 4 | 92 |
| | | % withn WE | 15.9 % | 41.7 % | 28.6 % | 22.4 % |
| | Associate Prof | Count | 8 | 16 | 0 | 24 |
| | | % withn WE | 2.7 % | 16.7 % | 0.0 % | 5.8 % |
| | Professor | Count | 1 | 13 | 5 | 19 |
| | | % withn WE | 0.3 % | 13.5 % | 35.7 % | 4.6 % |
| Total | Count | | 301 | 96 | 14 | 411 |
| | % withn WE | | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Of the respondents, with 1-10 year of job experience, 81 percent were working as Lecturer or lower hierarchical levels. By contrast, 36 percent of the respondent with 21+ years of experience was working as Lecturer or lower hierarchical levels. Thus, the respondents with 21+ years' of experience were working as Lecturer or lower hierarchical levels less often (- 45 percentage points).

Of the respondents, with 1-10 years of job experience, 0 percent working a Professors. By contrast, 36 percent of the respondent with 21+ years of experience was working as Professors. Thus, the respondents with 21+ years' of experience were working as Professors more often (+36 percentage points).

Of the respondents, with 1-10 years of job experience, 16 percent working as Assistant Professors. By contrast, 29 percent of the respondent with 21+ years of experience was working as Assistant Professors. Thus, the respondents with 21+ years' of experience were working as Assistant Professors more often (+ 13 percentage points).

Of the respondents, with 1-10 years of job experience, 3 percent working as Associate Professors. By contrast, 0 percent of the respondent with 21+ years of experience was working as Associate Professors. Thus, the respondents with 1-10 years' of experience were working as Associate Professors more often (+3 percentage points).

Of the respondents with 11- 20 years of job experience 14 percent were working as Professors. This is below the respondents with 21 and more years of job experience (- 22 percentage point). It seems respondents with 21 and more years of experience are more often working as Professors compared to respondents with few years of experience.

As the 4 cell (33 %) have expected count less than 5 (expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio was observed, so the Likelihood Ratio is observed. The overall Likelihood Ratio-test yield significant result (Likelihood Ratio = 121.750; d.f. = 6; $p < .001$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population. The strength of association is strong (Cramer's V .41).

Of the 36 percent of the respondents with 21 and more years of job experience is working Lecturer and below hierarchical level could be some from administrative assistants, and Lab assistants' job, who had fewer chances of growth and promotion, without improving the academic qualifications.

According to the job experience with reference to the number of years, three categories were built and respondents with one to ten year of experience were working as Lecturer and below more often as compared to respondents with 21 and more years of experience (36 %, + 45 percentage points). Conversely, none of the respondents with one to ten years of job experience was working as a professor, 36 percent respondents with twenty-one and more year of experience were working as Professors. As far as the other respondents were concerned, 42 percent respondents with eleven to twenty years of job experience and 29 percent with twenty-one to more years of experience were working as Assistant Professor. At the same time, 17 percent respondents with eleven to twenty year of experience were working as Associate Professor. On the other hand, 38 percent respondents with twenty one and more job experience were also working as Lecturer and below hierarchical level. It seemed more number of job experience did not translate into higher hierarchical position. Although the hypothesis was supported that respondents with more year of work experience achieve higher positions most likely as compared to those with few years of work experience. However, the finding suggests that it not necessary that only with more years of experience one can climb the higher hierarchical positions, along with job experience other requisite criteria is also crucial.

4.5.3 Requisite Research Publication

For publications following hypothesis developed:-

Hypothesis: Respondents with more number of publications achieve higher positions compared to respondents who have fewer publications.

Table 16 Number of Publications and Hierarchical Position of Respondents

| | | Number of publications | | | Total |
|--------------------|---------------|------------------------|-----------------|----------------|--------|
| | | 0 publication | 1-4 publication | 5+ Publication | |
| Lecturer and below | Count | 196 | 68 | 12 | 276 |
| | % within pub. | 97.5 % | 58.1 % | 12.9 % | 67.2 % |
| Asstt. Prof | Count | 3 | 43 | 46 | 92 |
| | % within pub. | 1.5 % | 36.8 % | 49.5 % | 22.4 % |
| Associate Prof | Count | 2 | 5 | 17 | 24 |
| | % within pub. | 1.0 % | 4.3 % | 18.3 % | 5.8 % |
| Professor | Count | 0 | 1 | 18 | 19 |
| | % within pub. | 0.0 % | 0.9 % | 19.4 % | 4.6 % |
| Total | Count | 201 | 117 | 93 | 411 |
| | % within pub. | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Of the respondents, without any publication, 98 percent were working as Lecturer or lower hierarchical levels. By contrast, 13 percent of the respondents with 5 or more publications have been working as a lecturer or lower hierarchical levels. Thus, the most productive respondents were less likely working as a lecturer or lower hierarchical levels (+ 85 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without any publication, 0 percent was working as Professor. By contrast, 19 percent respondents with five and more publication were working as Professors. Thus, the most productive respondents were more likely working as Professors (+ 19 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without any publication, 2 percent were working as Assistant Professor. By contrast, 50 percent respondents with five and more publication were working as Assistant Professors. Thus, the most productive respondents were more likely working as Assistant Professors (+ 48 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without any publication, 1 percent was working as Associate Professor. By contrast, 18 percent respondents with five and more publication were working as Associate Professors. Thus, the most productive respondents were more likely working as Assistant Professors (+ 17 percentage points).

As the 1 cell (8.3 %) have expected count less than 5 (expected count less than 5 < 20 % = negligible), so the χ^2 - test observed. The overall χ^2 -test yield significant result

($\chi^2 = 239.975^a$; d.f. = 6; $p < .001$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population. Accordingly, highly productive respondents with five and more publication were working Assistant Professors most often. The strength of association is strong (Cramer's $V .50$).

As far as the number of publications was concerned, there were three categories and respondents without any publication were working as Lecturer and below hierarchical position as compared to the respondents with five and more publication (13 %, +85 percentage points).

Interestingly, 37 percent respondents with one to four publications were working as Assistant Professor, and 50 percent respondent with five and more publications were also working as Assistant Professor as compared to Associate Professors (18 %, +32 percentage points) and Professor (19 %, +31 percentage points) with five and more publications. Here, it seems more productive respondents were more likely working as Assistant Professor. Although, the hypothesis is supported that respondents with more number of publications achieve higher positions compared to respondents who have fewer publications.

However, here it seems that highly productive respondents were more likely working as Assistant Professor (Beginning Professorial rank). As per Higher Education Commission of Pakistan's (HEC) criteria to qualify for advanced professorial ranks like for Associate Professor one needs 5-years post-PhD teaching/ research experience along with 10 research publications (with at least 4 publications in the last 5 years in the HEC recognized Journals). Similarly, to qualify for a Professor one needs even more exhaustive criteria. So solely highly productive behaviours might not translate directly into higher positions, rather post-doctoral experience, and job experience is also mandatory to climb the hierarchical ladder. These findings are consistent to many academically advanced countries and signifying meritocracy in academia, which are applicable to both men and women academics that higher academic degrees, specific number of job experience and scientifically acclaim research publication are crucially important to access higher positions (Bosquet, Combes, & Garc'ia-Peñalosa; Jones et al., 2012; Kimoto, 2015).

On the contrary, the alarmingly low proportion of women on higher Professorial ranks, despite the higher achievement of women academics, and according to the findings of this research 67 percent respondents were working as Lecturer, and below hierarchical levels

(lowest academic hierarchy), 22 percent were working as Assistant Professors (beginning rank of Professorial status), 6 percent respondents were working as Associate Professors (intermediate rank of Professorial status) and only 5 percent respondents were working as Professors (top rank of Professorial status). Thus the women working on intermediate and full Professorial rank were only 11 percent, which indicated that the phenomena of existing meritocracy required to be investigated in detail.

Simultaneously the findings from Commonwealth universities by Singh (2008), also highlighted that in Pakistan there were 9 percent (only 4 in number) female Dean and 20 percent women Professors in 2006. At the same time, the data from one of the biggest and the oldest institutions of higher learning in Pakistan, University of the Punjab, Lahore (2012) stated that there were 11 percent women and 21 percent men working as Assistant Professor (beginning Professorial rank). As far as the Associate Professors were concerned, there were only 1 percent women and 3 percent men were working as Associate Professor (Intermediate Professorial rank) and finally only 1 percent women and 6 percent men were working as Professors (Top Professorial rank) in one of the largest universities of Pakistan. Although, these trends showed that where the men are few on professorial rank, the proportion of women is even lower (Fact Book, PU, 2012). Concurrently in this study, it was found that despite having the highest academic credential, and high productivity respondents were more often working on beginning professorial ranks. So it seemed despite acquiring the merits and pre-requisite criteria to access the higher academic hierarchies, there would be some invisible impediments, which could hinder the women to pass the glass ceiling and reach the higher hierarchical levels.

So the following section will focus on the invisible barriers, which women academics might come across, on the way to access higher hierarchical position:-

4.6 Barriers to Access Higher Hierarchical Positions

The present study has found that respondents with higher academic qualification, academic publications and job experience were more likely working on the beginning professorial ranks, though substantial majority was working on lower hierarchical positions and without possessing prerequisite qualifications and designated merits; it is less likely that

respondents could even qualify to be the candidates for appointments at higher academic rungs and considered for promotions. However, if respondents were working to improve credentials, various support mechanism could assist to achieve excellence. Otherwise, such efforts might not translate into same outcomes.

At the same time, literature has also suggested, despite acquiring the prerequisite criteria to access the higher hierarchical positions, women are less likely to be appointed and promoted to higher hierarchical positions, hence more likely working on lower hierarchical positions in universities globally (Amondi, 2011) due to glass ceiling practices and what Bourdiou (1986) suggested due to the existence of a non-meritocratic academic reality, where promotion is a function of social networking rather than of one's merit. The glass ceiling could be referred to the "artificial barriers to the advancement of women and minorities." It is an invisible barrier based on attitudinal or organisational bias and discrimination that prevents the minorities and women from rising the corporate ladder and into high-level management and excellence positions, regardless of their qualifications and achievements. A glass ceiling inequality represents a gender "that is not explained by other job-relevant characteristics of the employee," "glass ceiling is greater at higher levels of an outcome than at lower levels of an outcome (Hymowitz and Schellhardt, 1986; Kensbock et al., 2013). It remained a modern-day issue, with many surveys and reports being undertaken internationally (Al-Manasra, 2013).

Accordingly, there are two other critical points of views on women's less representation in the upper echelon of the academia. Firstly, the women do not have the skills, or interests, or whatever, to do serious scholarly work. Secondly, they have been intentionally discriminated because of structural power conflicts (Acker, 2009; Bailyn, 2003; Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013; Batool, Sajid & Shaheen, 2013).

Correspondingly, one of the focuses of this study was to address the gap in the existing literature on the more concentration of women at lower hierarchical positions in universities and impediments they experiencing on the way to access higher academic positions in universities, as there is no data available on this issue in Pakistan (Ahmed & Hyder, 2009; Ismail, 2010; Jabbar & Imran, 2013; Khan, Rehman & Dost, 2012; Morley & Crossouard 2016). Secondly, it is intended to capture the baseline information about the situation of women in academia, concerning their hierarchical positioning and socio-cultural and

organisational barriers which they could experience on the way to access higher academic hierarchies.

In the present research 67 percent respondents were working as Lecturer and below hierarchical levels (Instructor-lowest academic hierarchy) in four randomly selected universities of Lahore Capital of Punjab), Pakistan, 22 percent were working as Assistant Professors (beginning rank of the three professorial ranks), 6 percent respondents were working as Associate Professors (intermediate rank of the three professorial ranks) and only 5 percent respondents were working as Professors (highest academic hierarchy). Thus, the respondents were working Lecturer and below academic hierarchy more often compared to the respondents working on Professorial ranks. Hence, the respondents were more likely working in lower hierarchical positions.

The low representation of women at higher hierarchical level can have an adverse effect on the organisational culture. As the Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1977) wrote about the adverse effects that can occur when women or minorities are tokens (recruiting a small number of people from under-represented groups to give the appearance of equality within a workforce) in their departments. When women represent less than 15–20 percent of a department they are more likely to feel the effects of gender stereotyping (Rosabeth Moss Kanter, 1977). Simultaneously, Gheaus (2015) wrote ‘token woman’ refers to a woman who asked to occupy a position of power or prestige partly because she is a woman but without intending to actually address the deep forms of sexism in the culture of an institution (Gheaus, 2015).

Therefore, the subsequent section will explore the various barriers, which respondents could face accessing the higher positions as literature has suggested that glass ceiling is manifested in multiple ways: informal recruitment practices that fail to recruit women, lack of opportunities for training and mentorship, exclusion from informal networks, menial assignments rather than challenging tasks that would progress their careers, wage gaps between men and women despite comparable work, and placement in jobs that have very little advancement opportunities. Gender stereotypes, male-dominated structures, and discrimination have placed barriers to progress for women. Accordingly, in this research these barriers were disseminated into personal, organisational and societal barriers by addressing the following research questions:-

1. Are the women working in lower hierarchical positions in universities in Pakistan?
2. If yes, which aspects could restrict the women to access the academic excellence and positions of power?

One central hypothesis is developed to find the answers to the primary and subsequent research questions:

1. Several personal, organisational and societal barriers may inhibit women from climbing academic excellence and positions of power.

In the following figure, the personal, organisational and societal barriers would be explored to find if they could hamper the women academics in accessing the academic excellence and positions of power.

Figure 8 Barriers: Restricting Access to Academic Excellence and Positions of Power



4.7 Personal Barriers

The scientific literature has suggested that women's marital status, parenting, and child care responsibilities could hinder them to concentrate extensively on professional responsibilities; as a consequence, they secure less experience, which ultimately led them to work on least influencing hierarchies (Acker & Armenti, 2004). Though historically, work and family have been a topic of debate for working women. Recently, a study by Deutsch & Yao (2014) indicated the comparable issues for women's moderate progress in academia. The study highlighted many women might not be able to continue jobs; they might quit, as they could not manage the pressure of family and profession. Deutsch & Yao (2014) tried to find the reasons which compelled the tenured women professors to leave the university. They found the most cited reason for leaving the job was work-family conflict. Women academics were dissatisfied with the support for balancing work and family life (Deutsch & Yao, 2014; McCrady, 2012; Vanessa et al., 2015). Simultaneously, academic work extensively needs mobility and competition forces abandon numerous women from their career, or they take a career break for the period of assuming different family roles. It appears that after fulfilling a set of necessary conditions, to reconcile professional and family life is sometimes not very easy (Polkowska, 2014). Correspondingly, it is assumed that various personal commitments could intrude the professional engagements and research productivity of respondents; consequently, it is less likely that women could acquire higher hierarchical positions. As research publications deemed substantial for promotion and acquiring the high hierarchical positions, one has to work separately on it despite having higher qualifications and more years of experiences. Therefore, personal engagements are measured against the productivity of respondents, thus it hypothesises:-

Hypothesis: Personal engagements of the respondents could impede the productivity and make less likely to access the higher hierarchical positions.

So, in the following section age, family structure, and assistance for domestic work of the respondents will be verified against their productivity.

4.7.1 Research Productivity in Later Years of Career

The academia is getting increasingly challenging; it requires long working hours, exhaustive research productivity, and extensive networking mechanisms to be successful in universities. Almost all over the world, universities were designed by men, for male students and faculty. Working structures such as working hours were the lifestyles of the men, who quite often had women at home to care for them, be it a wife, mother, sister, or housekeeper (Subramaniam, Arumugam, & Abu Baker Akeel, Drakich 2014, Stewart, 2007).

Consistent to global trends, in Pakistani universities too, one requires to be actively working on the enhancement of research productivity, without possessing specific published research papers, one could be restricted to access the position of power and influence. However, women due to family and work conflict might not be able to put more efforts in early years of career due to marital and parenting challenges, though in later years they might put more efforts towards attaining the requisite criteria to attain higher hierarchical positions in universities as kids could have grown up.

However, the women's deliberation to improve credentials in later years might not translate into enormous gains. As many male colleagues would already have achieved the pre-requisite criteria, they had extensive and uninterrupted time (due to less household, child care, parenting, domestic chores responsibilities) to improve the academic credentials in early years and attain the higher positions much early as compared to women academics. On the other hand, women academics not only remain far behind of their male colleagues, rather have limited expertise, experiences and inadequate networking. Even after attaining merits, they might have to wait for the vacancy, time, queue (if any other colleague have achieved the criteria before, they would be given preference) in the department (unless they change the university in case of vacant vacancy there) consequently even if they would be able to achieve higher academic ranks, they might not enjoy for longer period of time, as their retirement age (60 years of age) would not so far away. So, it is assumed that older respondents might be working rigorously to enhance academic productivity compared to younger respondents. Although the substantial majority in this research was working on lower academic hierarchy and only 11 percent respondents were working on intermediate and

full Professorship, they were relatively older respondents in the sample and supposed to be highly productive. Therefore it hypothesises:-

Hypothesis: Older respondents are more productive compared to younger respondents.

Table 17 Research Productivity in Later Years of Career

| | | | Age of the Respondents | | | Total |
|-----------------------|-----------------|--------------|------------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | | 20-29 | 30-34 | 35+ | |
| Publications of Women | 0 publication | Count | 133 | 55 | 13 | 201 |
| | | % within age | 63.0 % | 47.0 % | 15.7 % | 48.9 % |
| | 1-4 publication | Count | 54 | 36 | 27 | 117 |
| | | % within age | 25.6 % | 30.8 % | 32.5 % | 28.5 % |
| | 5+ Publication | Count | 24 | 26 | 43 | 93 |
| | | % within age | 11.4 % | 22.2 % | 51.8 % | 22.6 % |
| Total | Count | | 211 | 117 | 83 | 411 |
| | % within age | | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Of the young (20-29 years old) respondents 63 percent did not have any publication. By contrast, 16 percent older respondents (35+ year old) also did not have any publication. Thus, the older respondents are less often non-productive compared to the young respondent (-47 percentage points).

Of the young respondents 11 percent have five and more publications. By contrast, the older respondents, 52 percent have five and more publications. Thus, the older respondents are more often highly productive compared to the young respondent (+ 41 percentage points).

Of the young respondents 26 percent have 1-4 publications. By contrast, the older respondents, 33 percent have five and more publications. Thus, the older respondents are more often productive compared to the young respondent (+ 7 percentage points).

The overall chi²-test yielded a significant result (Chi² = 71.813^a; d.f. = 4; p < .001). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population; the older respondents 35 years and older have five and more publications more often. The strength of association is strong (Cramer's V .30).

With reference to the age distribution, three categories were built and older respondents were productive more often. In the youngest group of respondents' age 20 to 29, 63 percent did not have any publication. Similar to overall findings the older respondents 35 years and older, 52 percent have five and more publications. This is higher the level of young respondents (11 %, +41 percentage point). So the findings are indicating that older respondents were more often productive. Hence, the hypothesis is supported.

As the finding shows that younger respondents were most often non-productive, it is most likely that the young respondents were working on the lower hierarchical level (Lecturer and below). Along with marriage and parenting responsibilities of young respondents another important indicator could also play a vital role in the least productive behaviours of respondents. At the beginning of an academic career, many young women are supervised by men and after completing their designated duties, they might be assigned with additional academic and administrative tasks. As Acker (2009) cited one woman's experience in his study, who described herself as 'the person... who can be called on to do whatever needs to be done' and refers to herself 'as a departmental resource, like the fire extinguisher'. Similar findings by D'Cruz & Rayner (2013) revealed that women in academics often experienced that male senior colleague passes the paper marking or trivial tasks that come their way to junior women staff. So due to additional engagements, they could not be able to improve the personal credentials, and without improving the academic qualification (doctoral degree, and work experience), they would not be able to access the higher positions despite being highly productive. However, more productive behaviour in early years could develop the expertise for later years.

Simultaneously, many young respondents would be enjoying the privilege to be the part of university faculty (even attaining a Lecturer post is immense prestige in the society), so they may not start working early to strengthen their credentials.

4.7.2 Family Structure

The family structure could be substantially crucial for the academics. It can have an enormous impact on the quality of work, as it is already stated that in typical Pakistani household women are primarily responsible for managing the household and domestic

responsibilities. The type of family structure where women academics were living might have a substantial impact on their professional commitments. Generally there are three types of family structure exist in Pakistan, i.e. Nuclear, Joint and extended family structure. Those who living in Nuclear family (a married couple and their dependent children), joint family (married couple, their dependent, independent, married (their children), unmarried, divorced and widowed children are all living in one household/ three married and unmarried generations are living in one household), and extended family (consisting of grandparents, married couple, aunts, uncles, and cousins, all living nearby or in the same household and sharing the same kitchen and sometimes having various kitchen,) could have varying degree of domestic work responsibilities. It is assumed that women in Nuclear families might have more independence to decide the course of their lives and schedules as compared to women living in joint family, where a various individual could influence their routine, and they might have the extensive burden of domestic responsibilities (Chadda, & Deb Sinha, 2013).

It is also crucial to note that type of family structure could also have a critical impact on the performance and research productivity of male academicians as well. However, its impact would be much extensive on women as they are primarily responsible for managing and monitoring domestic sphere. Therefore following hypothesis was developed:-

Hypothesis: Respondents living in nuclear family system publish more compared to respondents living in the Joint family system.

Table 18 Family Structure and Research Productivity of Respondents

| | | | Family Structure | | | Total |
|------------------------|-----------------|--------------|------------------|----------|--------|--------|
| | | | Nuclear | Extended | Joint | |
| Number of Publications | 0 publication | Count | 62 | 74 | 65 | 201 |
| | | % within FS. | 47.0 % | 50.3 % | 49.2 % | 48.9 % |
| | 1-4 publication | Count | 37 | 46 | 34 | 117 |
| | | % within FS. | 28.0 % | 31.3 % | 25.8 % | 28.5 % |
| | 5+ Publication | Count | 33 | 27 | 33 | 93 |
| | | % within FS. | 25.0 % | 18.4 % | 25.0 % | 22.6 % |
| Total | Count | | 132 | 147 | 132 | 411 |
| | % within FS. | | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Of the respondents in the Nuclear family system, 47 percent did not have any publications. By contrast, 49 percent respondents in the Joint family did not have publication. Thus, the respondents living in the Nuclear family are non-productive more often (+ 2 percentage points).

Of the respondents in the Nuclear family system, 25 percent have five and more publications. This is equal to the productivity of respondents living in the joint family system. However, this 7 percentage points more than the respondents living in extended families. It seems respondents living in various family types do not vary significantly in productivity. However, those living in the extended family system were less often productive.

Of the respondents in the Nuclear family system, 28 percent have 1-4 publications. By contrast, 26 percent respondents in the Joint family have 1-4 publications. Thus, the respondents living Joint family more often less productive (-2 percentage points).

The overall χ^2 -test yielded a marginally significant result ($\chi^2 = 2.763^a$; d.f. = 4; $p < 1$). This suggests that the sample result cannot be generalised to the population. The strength of association is weak (Cramer's V .02).

As far as the type of family was concerned, there were three categories, and respondents living in Nuclear, Extended or joint family system did not vary significantly in their productivity behaviours. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected that the respondents who were living in the nuclear family system might have published more as compared to the respondents living in the joint family system. It seems that type of the family where respondents were living did not influence the academic productivity of the respondents rather domestic assistance might have a significant effect.

The findings yielded that it not necessarily important that in which type of family respondents were living, rather support to manage work and family matter might be crucial. The respondents living in nuclear families might have more stressful domestic work due to the absence of any other family member, and even the presence of Maids in the household could be stressful as in many cases supervision of Maids is inevitable, so respondents living in the nuclear family might have to manage all the household chores solely. On the other hand, respondents living in joint families may or may not have an extra share of domestic responsibilities, if the families are supportive they might have the less domestic burden, and

if the family is not supportive, they might have extra work. So in the following section, the domestic assistance's influence on the productivity of the respondents will be explored.

4.7.3 Lack of Domestic Assistance

The literature has highlighted that many women academics might quit the jobs because they were unable to manage the work and family conflicts. The most cited reason of women quitting the academia was that women academics were dissatisfied with the support for balancing work and family life (Deutsch & Yao, 2014; McCrady, 2012; Vanessa et al., 2015). Balancing work and family is often more difficult for women than for men because of the disproportionate burden of the family responsibilities (Bird, 2006). Women face uneven distribution of childcare and other domestic responsibilities which become major barriers to the advancement of their career.

Managing work and family for women academics becomes even more difficult in a patriarchal Pakistani society where women are expected to share the large responsibility for family care. There is also a notion that work-family roles are largely shaped by stereotypical gender roles due to the traditionally held belief of men as "bread-winners and women as "house makers", so despite coming into paid workforce and contributing to family income, the social construction of gender roles still makes the women focus on domestic sphere (Gronlund, 2007) primarily. Most of the time women are solely responsible for managing the household chores, child and parenting responsibilities like nursing, pick and drop from nurseries or school (monitoring if hired a pick and drop service), assistance for kid's school work and exams and finally managing immediate and extended family relations. In most of the cases, men remain detached from such engagements or have limited involvements (Rehman & Roomi, 2012). In such scenario, the assistance for domestic responsibilities could provide the relief to women, and they might concentrate more on professional duties. Thus it hypothesises:-

Hypothesis: Respondents with domestic assistance publish more compared to respondent without domestic assistance.

Table 19 Domestic Assistance and Research Productivity of Respondents

| | | | Assistance at Home | | | | Total |
|-----------------------|-----------------|-------------|--------------------|--------|---------|---------------|--------|
| | | | None | Maid | Daycare | Family member | |
| Number of Publication | 0 publication | Count | 107 | 47 | 11 | 36 | 201 |
| | | % withn AH. | 59.1 % | 39.2 % | 36.7 % | 45.0 % | 48.9 % |
| | 1-4 publication | Count | 34 | 46 | 10 | 27 | 117 |
| | | % with AH. | 18.8 % | 38.3 % | 33.3 % | 33.8 % | 28.5 % |
| | 5+ Publication | Count | 40 | 27 | 9 | 17 | 93 |
| | | % withnAH. | 22.1 % | 22.5 % | 30.0 % | 21.2 % | 22.6 % |
| Total | | Count | 181 | 120 | 30 | 80 | 411 |
| | | % with AH. | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Of the respondents, without any domestic support, 59 percent have no publication. By contrast, 45 percent of the respondents with family member support also have no publication. Thus, the respondents without the domestics support are non-productive more often (+ 14 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without any domestic support, 59 percent have no publication. By contrast, 39 percent respondents with the maid and 37 percent respondents with daycare facility did not have publication. Thus, the respondents with the support of maid are 20 percentage points less non-productive, and the respondents with the support of daycare are 22 percentage points less non-productive than the respondents without support.

Of the respondents, without domestic support, 22 percent have five and more publication. This is slightly below the productivity level of the respondents with the support of family member (21 %, - 1 percentage points). This is also 1 percentage points lower compared to respondents with Maid support and 8 percentage points lower compared to respondents with daycare support. It seems that respondents with day care support were more productive than the respondents with no domestic support.

Of the respondents, without any domestic support, 19 percent have 1-4 publications. By contrast, 34 percent respondents with family member support have 1-4 publications. Thus, the respondents without any support were more often less productive (- 15 percentage points). This is 19 percentage points less productivity than the respondents with Maid, and 14 percentage points less productivity than the respondents with day care support.

As the no cell have expected count less than 5 (expected count less than 5 < 20 % = negligible), so the χ^2 -test observed. The overall χ^2 -test yielded a significant result ($\chi^2 = 19.263^a$; d.f. = 6; $p < .01$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population. The strength of association is weak (Cramer's V .15).

On the basis of domestic assistance, there were four categories, and respondents without any type of assistance (59 %) were more often non-productive as compared to the respondents with any kind of assistance (Maid, Day-care, Family member). Similarly, respondents without any domestic assistance (22 %) were less often highly productive with five and more publications in last five years as compared to the respondents with domestic assistance. So the hypothesis is supported that the respondents who had domestic assistance have also published more as compared to the respondent without domestic assistance. However, it is important to note that respondents with day care facility were more often productive as compared to respondents with maid and family member's support.

So, the better facilities to manage the work and family work could improve the productivity of the respondents. The findings endorsed the other studies idea that balancing work and family life is crucial for women academics, if they are adequately able to manage the work and family responsibilities, their performance could be better professionally (Deutsch & Yao, 2014; McCrady, 2012; Vanessa et al., 2015).

4.8 Organizational Barrier

The studies have continuously reported that women are systematically excluded from opportunity networks, they are overburdened, they struggle to keep the balance between undergraduate teachings and research work, exam invigilation and trivial tasks of assessments of papers and reports are given to junior women staff. Due to such organisational impediments, women academics would be less likely participating in competitions. Recently, universities not only require more publications somewhat scientifically acclaimed publications attract more benefits instead of higher teaching workloads. So, if the female academics have fewer publications, they are less likely to be the candidates for promotion or incentives (Bosquet, Combes, & Garc'ia-Peñalosa, 2014; Jones et al., 2012; Kimoto, 2015). Therefore, it hypothesises:-

Hypothesis: Organisational engagements of the respondents could impede the productivity and make less likely for women to access the higher hierarchical positions.

So, in the following section teaching workload, abroad and within academic conference participation, thesis supervision and its correlation with respondent's productivity is measured.

4.8.1 High Teaching Work Load

The extensive teaching workload could have severe consequences on research productivity, and lack of adequate research productivity could eventually lead to the denied access to academic excellence and positions of power. The teaching workload is overlooked and ignored in the promotion, however promotional criteria emphasised on research and publication outputs (Peetz, Strachan & Troup, 2014). Some studies have highlighted that women tend to have higher Lecturing, assisting and administrative workloads, as a consequence women have fewer publications (Fridner et al., 2015; Schlegelmilch & Diamantopoulos, 2015). At the same time study by Morley (2006) stated the workload in university is a significant consideration, the exclusion of women from career development opportunities and unequal distribution of workloads could seriously impede the women's career success (Morley, 2006). So it hypothesise:-

Hypothesis: Respondents with higher teaching workload publish less compared to the respondents with low teaching workloads.

Table 20 High Teaching Workload and its effect on Research Productivity

| Hierarchy | | | | Teaching Workload | | | Total |
|-----------------|-------------|----------|-------------|-------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | | | 2 Co. | 3 Co. | 4&+ C | |
| Lecture & Below | Publication | 0 Pub. | Count | 23 | 85 | 25 | 133 |
| | | | % within tw | 88.5 % | 61.2 % | 56.8 % | 63.6 % |
| | | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 2 | 47 | 16 | 65 |
| | | | % within tw | 7.7 % | 33.8 % | 36.4 % | 31.1 % |
| | | 5+ Pub. | Count | 1 | 7 | 3 | 11 |
| | | | % within tw | 3.8 % | 5.0 % | 6.8 % | 5.3 % |
| | Total | | Count | 26 | 139 | 44 | 209 |
| | | | % within tw | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

| | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|-------------|----------|-------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Assistant Professor | Publication | 0 Pub. | Count | 0 | 3 | 0 | 3 |
| | | | % within tw | 0.0 % | 6.0 % | 0.0 % | 3.3 % |
| | | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 5 | 30 | 8 | 43 |
| | | | % within tw | 18.5 % | 60.0 % | 53.3 % | 46.7 % |
| | | 5+ Pub. | Count | 22 | 17 | 7 | 46 |
| | | | % within tw | 81.5 % | 34.0 % | 46.7 % | 50.0 % |
| | Total | | Count | 27 | 50 | 15 | 92 |
| | | | % within tw | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Associate Professor | Publication | 0 Pub. | Count | 0 | 2 | | 2 |
| | | | % within tw | 0.0 % | 40.0 % | | 9.5 % |
| | | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 3 | 0 | | 3 |
| | | | % within tw | 18.8 % | 0.0 % | | 14.3 % |
| | | 5+ Pub. | Count | 13 | 3 | | 16 |
| | | | % within tw | 81.2 % | 60.0 % | | 76.2 % |
| | Total | | Count | 16 | 5 | | 21 |
| | | | % within tw | 100.0% | 100.0% | | 100.0% |
| Professors | Publication | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | | | % within tw | 0.0 % | 20.0 % | 0.0 % | 5.9 % |
| | | 5+ Pub. | Count | 10 | 4 | 2 | 16 |
| | | | % within tw | 100.0% | 80.0% | 100.0% | 94.1 % |
| | Total | | Count | 10 | 5 | 2 | 17 |
| | | | % within tw | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | Publication | 0 Pub. | Count | 23 | 90 | 25 | 138 |
| | | | % within tw | 29.1 % | 45.2 % | 41.0 % | 40.7 % |
| | | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 10 | 78 | 24 | 112 |
| | | | % within tw | 12.7 % | 39.2 % | 39.3 % | 33.0 % |
| | | 5+ Pub. | Count | 46 | 31 | 12 | 89 |
| | | | % within tw | 58.2 % | 15.6 % | 19.7 % | 26.3 % |
| | Total | | Count | 79 | 199 | 61 | 339 |
| | | | % within tw | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Of the respondents, with two courses teaching workload, 89 percent did not have any publication in Lecturer and below respondents while controlling for the hierarchical positions. By contrast, 57 percent of the respondents with 4 and more courses also did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents with a low teaching workload are more often non-productive (- 32 percentage points) in Lecturer and below respondents.

Of the respondents, with two courses teaching workload, 4 percent have five and more publications. By contrast, 7 percent respondents with 4 and more courses have five and more publications. Again it seems that respondents with low teaching workload have also published less (-3 percentage point) in case of Lecturer and below respondents.

Of the respondents, with two courses teaching workload, 0 percent did not have any publication in Assistant Professor respondents. By contrast, 0 percent of the respondents with 4 and more courses also did not have any publication. Thus, the Assistant Professors respondents despite low or high teaching workloads are not non-productive (0 percentage points).

Of the respondents, with two courses teaching workload, 82 percent have five and more publications. By contrast, 47 percent respondents with 4 and more courses have five and more publications. Thus, the respondents with high teaching workloads are more often less productive (- 35 percentage points) in Assistant Professor respondents. This is 13 percentage points more than the respondents with three courses teaching workload 34 percent of Assistant Professor respondents.

Of the respondents, with two courses teaching workload, 0 percent did not have any publication in Associate Professor respondents. By contrast, 40 percent of the respondents with 3 courses workload also did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents with low teaching workloads are non-productive more often (40 percentage points) in Associate Professor respondents.

Of the respondents, with two courses teaching workload, 81 percent have five and more publications. By contrast, 60 percent respondents with 3 courses workload have five and more publications. Thus, the respondents with high teaching workloads are more often less productive (- 21 percentage points) in Associate Professor respondents.

Of the respondents, with two courses teaching workload, 0 percent did not have any publication in Professor respondents. By contrast, 0 percent of the respondents with 4 courses workload also did not have any publication. Thus, the professor respondents are not non-productive regardless of their teaching workload.

Of the respondents, with two courses teaching workload, 100 percent have five and more publications. By contrast, 100 percent respondents with 3 courses workload have five and more publications. Thus, the professor respondents are more often highly productive.

This is 20 percentage points more than the respondents with three courses teaching workload 80 percent of Professor respondents.

Of the overall respondents, with two courses teaching workload, 29 percent did not have any publication. By contrast, 41 percent of the respondents with 4 and more courses also did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents with a high teaching workload are more often non-productive (+ 12 percentage points).

Of the respondents, with two courses teaching workload, 58 percent have five and more publications. By contrast, 20 percent respondents with 4 and more teaching workload have five and more publications. Thus the respondents with a high teaching workload are more often less-productive (-38 percentage points). It seems that respondents with a high teaching workload are more often less productive.

Overall 5 cell (83 %) have expected count less than 5 (as, expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio is observed. The overall Likelihood Ratio yielded a significant result (Likelihood Ratio = 53.717; d.f. = 4; $p < .01$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population. It seemed that respondents with two courses teaching workload were more often productive as compared to the respondents with three and more courses teaching workload. The hypothesis is supported that respondents with higher teaching workload publish less compared to respondents with low teaching workload. The strength of association is moderate (Cramer's V .29).

In a first step, we controlled for hierarchical positions. It is crucial to note the in the Lecturer and below group of respondents the Lecturer respondents are less likely having the 2 courses workload, as the teaching and research assistant respondents were also clumped together in this group, so it is most likely that in this group teaching and research assistant respondents were teaching 2 courses and they might have published less, due to another teaching, invigilation, and management tasks.

In the Associate Professor group of respondents, it is less likely that Associate Professors were teaching 4 and more courses as a prescribed workload, so there was none of the Associate Professor in the sample who was teaching four and more courses.

In most of the universities, the prescribed teaching workload of Associate professors and professors would not be more than 2 courses teaching per semester. However, many faculty members prefer to teach extra courses due to additional monetary benefits. It is also

crucial to note that to be a Professor one needs more than five publications, so it is evident that Professors in the sample would not have less than five publications.

It is also important to note that high teaching workload of the respondents perusing the higher professorial ranks (Assistant Professors) has lowered their productivity. These findings are consistent with other studies that women tend to have higher Lecturing, assisting and administrative workloads, as a consequence women have fewer publications, and in promotions, the higher weightage is given to research productivity, and teaching assignments are hugely ignored (Fridner et al., 2015; Schlegelmilch & Diamantopoulos, 2015). Although the Lecturer respondents in the study (although the proportion was small) with higher teaching workload were also highly productive, which indicated that junior respondents were motivated and enthusiastic to strengthen their credentials, however still they have to go a long way.

When assessing the teaching workload, it is important to consider the fact that the question in the questionnaire used to measure the workload was in one semester and productivity was measured in last five years reference period. Accordingly, the productivity of respondents does not necessarily imply that these publications occurred in the recent semester.

4.8.2 Seldom Participation in Boarder Networking Forums

Many of the researchers (Taylor-Abdulai et al., 2014; Shen, 2013; Jones et al., 2012; Uche & Jack, 2014) have already suggested as a part of academic responsibilities, it is important for faculty to be the part of broader networks, participation in academic conferences and other professional endeavours. The broader networking opportunities, academic activities and extended exposures in universities might have a long-lasting effect on women's progress and success. The studies have found that women academics could have a lower probability of being candidates for promotions due to several hidden barriers including selection biases for providing funding for travel and lack of social networks. These networking opportunities could enhance the capabilities and prerequisites criteria for attaining the higher hierarchical positions and prerequisite criteria, i.e. Publications (Bosquet, Combes, & Garc'ia-Peñalosa, 2014; Britton, 2010).

So, it was significant to find the participation of respondents in broad networks (only abroad and within the country, academic conferences participation will be measured in this regard) and its impact on their research productivity. Therefore the international and national participation of the respondents is measured. Thus it hypothesises:-

Hypothesis: Respondents with more abroad conference participation publish more compared to respondents with less abroad conference participation.

Table 21 International Academic Conference Participation's influence on Research Productivity

| Hierarchy | | | | Abroad Conferences Participation | | | Total |
|---------------------|-------------|---------|----------|----------------------------------|--------|---------|--------|
| | | | | 0 Con. | 1 Con. | 2+ Con. | |
| Lecture & Below | Publication | 0 Pub. | Count | 188 | 5 | 3 | 196 |
| | | | % w con | 78.7 % | 29.4 % | 15.0 % | 71.0 % |
| | | 1-4 Pub | Count | 44 | 10 | 14 | 68 |
| | | | % w.con | 18.4 % | 58.8 % | 70.0 % | 24.6 % |
| | | 5+ Pub | Count | 7 | 2 | 3 | 12 |
| | | | % w.con | 2.9 % | 11.8 % | 15.0 % | 4.3 % |
| | Total | | Count | 239 | 17 | 20 | 276 |
| | | | % w.con | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Assistant Professor | Publication | 0 Pub | Count | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| | | | % w.con | 5.9 % | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 3.3 % |
| | | 1-4 Pub | Count | 22 | 5 | 16 | 43 |
| | | | % w.con | 43.1 % | 71.4 % | 47.1 % | 46.7 % |
| | | 5+ Pub | Count | 26 | 2 | 18 | 46 |
| | | | % w. con | 51.0 % | 28.6 % | 52.9 % | 50.0 % |
| | Total | | Count | 51 | 7 | 34 | 92 |
| | | | % w. on | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Associate Professor | Publication | 0 Pub | Count | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| | | | % w. on | 22.2 % | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 8.3 % |
| | | 1-4 Pub | Count | 5 | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| | | | % w. on | 55.6 % | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 20.8 % |
| | | 5+ Pub | Count | 2 | 4 | 11 | 17 |
| | | | % w. on | 22.2 % | 100.0% | 100.0% | 70.8 % |
| | Total | | Count | 9 | 4 | 11 | 24 |
| | | | % w. on | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

| | | | | | | | |
|-----------|-------------|---------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Professor | Publication | 1-4 Pub | Count | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | | | % w. on | 9.1 % | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 5.3 % |
| | Total | 5+ Pub | Count | 10 | 3 | 5 | 18 |
| | | | % w. on | 90.9 % | 100.0% | 100.0% | 94.7 % |
| | | Total | Count | 11 | 3 | 5 | 19 |
| | | | % w. on | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | Publication | 0 Pub | Count | 193 | 5 | 3 | 201 |
| | | | % w. on | 62.3 % | 16.1 % | 4.3 % | 48.9 % |
| | 1-4 Pub | Count | 72 | 15 | 30 | 117 | |
| | | % w. on | 23.2 % | 48.4 % | 42.9 % | 28.5 % | |
| | | 5+ Pub | Count | 45 | 11 | 37 | 93 |
| | | | % w.con | 14.5 % | 35.5 % | 52.9 % | 22.6 % |
| | Total | Count | 310 | 31 | 70 | 411 | |
| | | % w. on | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | |

Of the respondents without any abroad conference participation, 79 percent did not have any publication in Lecturer and below respondents. By contrast, 15 percent of the respondents with two and more abroad conference participation did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents with abroad conference participation are non-productive less often (- 64 percentage points).

Of the respondents without any abroad conference participation, 3 percent have five and more publications. By contrast, 15 percent of the respondents with 2 and more abroad conference participation have five and more publication. Thus the respondents without abroad conference participation are most often less productive (- 12 percentage points) than the respondents with two and more abroad conferences in lecture and below respondents.

Of the respondents without any abroad conference participation, 6 percent did not have any publication in Assistant Professor respondents. By contrast, 0 percent of the respondents with two and more abroad conference participation did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents with abroad conference participation are non-productive less often (- 6 percentage points).

Of the respondents without any abroad conference participation, 51 percent have five and more publications in Assistant Professor respondents. By contrast, 53 percent of the respondents with 2 and more abroad conference participation have five and more publication. Thus the respondents without abroad conference participation are slightly less productive (- 2

percentage points) than the respondents with two and more abroad conferences in Assistant Professor respondents. The respondents with 1 and two and more with 1-4 publications were also most productive than the respondents without abroad conference participation.

Of the respondents without any abroad conference participation, 22 percent did not have any publication in Associate Professor respondents. By contrast, 0 percent of the respondents with two and more abroad conference participation did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents with abroad conference participation are non-productive less often (- 22 percentage points).

Of the respondents without any abroad conference participation, 22 percent have five and more publications in Associate Professor respondents. By contrast, 100 percent of the respondents with 2 and more abroad conference participation have five and more publication. Thus the respondents without abroad conference participation are more often less productive (- 78 percentage points) than the respondents with two and more abroad conferences in Associate Professor respondents.

Of the respondents without any abroad conference participation, 9 percent did not have any publication in Professor respondents. By contrast, 0 percent of the respondents with two and more abroad conference participation did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents with abroad conference participation are non-productive less often (- 9 percentage points).

Of the respondents without any abroad conference participation, 91 percent have five and more publications in Professor respondents. By contrast, 100 percent of the respondents with 2 and more abroad conference participation have five and more publication. Thus the respondents without abroad conference participation are more often less productive (- 9 percentage points) than the respondents with two and more abroad conferences in Professor respondents.

Of the respondents without any abroad conference participation, 62 percent did not have any publication in all respondents. By contrast, 4 percent of the respondents with two and more abroad conference participation did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents with abroad conference participation are non-productive less often (- 58 percentage points).

Of the respondents without any abroad conference participation, 15 percent have five and more publications in all respondents. By contrast, 53 percent of the respondents with 2

and more abroad conference participation have five and more publications in all respondents. Thus the respondents without abroad conference participation are least productive more often (- 38 percentage points).

Of the respondents with one abroad conference participation, 36 percent have five and more publications in all respondents. By contrast, 53 percent of the respondents with 2 and more abroad conference participation have five and more publication. This is 17 percentage points less as compared to the respondents with 2 and more abroad conference participation. It seems respondents with 2 and more abroad conference participation were highly productive than respondents without or less abroad participating respondents.

Overall 5 cell (83 %) have expected count less than 5 (as, expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio is observed. The overall Likelihood Ratio yielded a significant result (Likelihood Ratio = 111.370; d.f. = 4; $p < .01$). This suggests that the sample result be generalised to the population; abroad conference participation has a positive impact on higher publication productivity. It indicated the number of abroad conference participation has a positive impact on productivity patterns. It seemed that respondents who have attended international conferences were highly productive as compared to the respondents without abroad conference participation working on all hierarchical positions. Thus the hypothesis is supported. The strength of association is strong (Cramer's V .35).

In a first step, we controlled for hierarchical positions. It seemed that respondents with two and more international conference participation were more often productive. Importantly these findings are consistent with other studies that networking opportunities could enhance the capabilities of academics and they based on these opportunities they may attain the criteria to access the higher hierarchical positions (Bosquet, Combes, & Garc'ia-Peñalosa, 2014; Britton, 2010).

However, when assessing the productivity and conference participation of the respondents, it is important to consider the fact that the question in the questionnaire used to measure the participation in conferences and productivity was in last five years reference period. Accordingly, the productivity and conference participation of respondents does not necessarily imply that these publications and participation occurred in the recent semester.

Within Country Networking of Respondents: The following hypothesis was developed for within country conference participation:-

Hypothesis: Respondents with more within country conference participation publish more compared to respondents with fewer in-country conference participation.

Table 22 National Academic Conference Participation's influence on Research Productivity

| Hierarchy | | | | within country Conference Attendance | | | Total |
|---------------------|---------------------|----------|--------|--------------------------------------|------------|------------|--------|
| | | | | 0 | 1 | 2 | |
| | | | | Conference | Conference | Conference | |
| Lecture & Below | Publications 0 Pub. | Count | 171 | 12 | 13 | | 196 |
| | | % w. con | 81.8 % | 46.2 % | 31.7 % | | 71.0 % |
| | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 36 | 12 | 20 | | 68 |
| | | % w.con | 17.2 % | 46.2 % | 48.8 % | | 24.6 % |
| | 5+ Pub. | Count | 2 | 2 | 8 | | 12 |
| | | % w.con | 1.0 % | 7.7 % | 19.5 % | | 4.3 % |
| | Total | Count | 209 | 26 | 41 | | 276 |
| | | % w.con | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | | 100.0% |
| Assistant Professor | Publications 0 Pub. | Count | 3 | 0 | 0 | | 3 |
| | | % w.con | 6.8 % | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | | 3.3 % |
| | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 16 | 11 | 16 | | 43 |
| | | % w.con | 36.4 % | 57.9 % | 55.2 % | | 46.7 % |
| | 5+ Pub | Count | 25 | 8 | 13 | | 46 |
| | | % w.con | 56.8 % | 42.1 % | 44.8 % | | 50.0 % |
| | Total | Count | 44 | 19 | 29 | | 92 |
| | | % w.con | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | | 100.0% |
| Associate Professor | Publications 0 Pub | Count | 2 | | 0 | | 2 |
| | | % w.con | 18.2 % | | 0.0 % | | 8.3 % |
| | 1-4 Pub | Count | 5 | | 0 | | 5 |
| | | % w.con | 45.5 % | | 0.0 % | | 20.8 % |
| | 5+ Pub | Count | 4 | | 13 | | 17 |
| | | % w.con | 36.4 % | | 100.0 % | | 70.8 % |
| | Total | Count | 11 | | 13 | | 24 |
| | | % w.con | 100.0% | | 100.0% | | 100.0% |

| | | | | | | | |
|------------|--------------|----------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Professors | Publications | 1-4 Pub | Count | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| | | | % w.con | 9.1 % | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 5.3 % |
| | | 5+ Pub. | Count | 10 | 4 | 4 | 18 |
| | | | % w.con | 90.9 % | 100.0% | 100.0% | 94.7 % |
| Total | | | Count | 11 | 4 | 4 | 19 |
| | | | % w.con | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | Publications | 0 Pub. | Count | 176 | 12 | 13 | 201 |
| | | | % w.con | 64.0 % | 24.5 % | 14.9 % | 48.9 % |
| | | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 58 | 23 | 36 | 117 |
| | | | % w.con | 21.1 % | 46.9 % | 41.4 % | 28.5 % |
| | | 5+ Pub. | Count | 41 | 14 | 38 | 93 |
| | | | % w.con | 14.9 % | 28.6 % | 43.7 % | 22.6 % |
| | Total | | Count | 275 | 49 | 87 | 411 |
| | | | % w.con | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Of the respondents without any within country conference participation, 82 percent did not have any publication in Lecturer and below respondents. By contrast, 32 percent of the respondents with two and more within country conference participation did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents with within country conference participation are non-productive less often (- 50 percentage points).

Of the respondents without any within country conference participation, 1 percent has five and more publications. By contrast, 20 percent of the respondents with 2 and more within country conference participation have five and more publication. Thus the respondents without within country conference participation are most often less productive (- 19 percentage points) than the respondents with two and more within country conferences in lecture and below respondents.

Of the respondents without any within country conference participation, 7 percent did not have any publication in Assistant Professor respondent. By contrast, 0 percent of the respondents with two and more within country conference participation did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents with within country conference participation are non-productive less often (-7 percentage points).

Of the respondents without any within country conference participation, 57 percent have five and more publications in Assistant Professor respondents. By contrast, 45 percent of the respondents with 2 and more within country conference participation have five and

more publication. Thus the respondents without within country conference participation are more often less productive (- 12 percentage points) than the respondents with two and more within country conferences in Assistant Professor respondents. The respondents with 1 and two and more with 1-4 publications were also most productive than the respondents without within country conference participation.

Of the respondents without any within country conference participation, 18 percent did not have any publication in Associate Professor respondent. By contrast, 0 percent of the respondents with two and more within country conference participation did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents with within country conference participation are non-productive less often (- 18 percentage points).

Of the respondents without any within country conference participation, 36 percent have five and more publications in Associate Professor respondents. By contrast, 100 percent of the respondents with 2 and more within country conference participation have five and more publication. Thus the respondents without within country conference participation are more often less productive (- 64 percentage points) than the respondents with two and more within country conferences in Associate Professor respondents.

Of the respondents without any within country conference participation, 9 percent did not have any publication in Professor respondent. By contrast, 0 percent of the respondents with two and more within country conference participation did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents with within country conference participation are non-productive less often (- 9 percentage points).

Of the respondents without any within country conference participation, 91 percent have five and more publications in Professor respondent. By contrast, 100 percent of the respondents with 2 and more within country conference participation have five and more publication. Thus the respondents without within country conference participation are more often less productive (- 9 percentage points) than the respondents with two and more within country conferences in Professor respondents.

Of all the respondents, without any within country conference participation, 64 percent did not have any publication. By contrast, 15 percent of the respondents with 2 and more within country conference participation did not have any publication. Thus, the

respondents without within country conference participation are non-productive more often (+ 49 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without any within county conference participation, 15 percent have five and more publications. By contrast, 44 percent respondents with 2 and more within country conference participation have five and more publications. Thus the respondents with 2 and more within country conference participation are highly productive more often (+ 29 percentage points).

Of the respondents with one within county conference participation, 29 percent have five and more publications. By contrast, 44 percent respondents with 2 and more within country conference participation have five and more publications. Thus, the respondents with two and more within country conference participation were more often productive than the respondents with one within country conference participation.

Overall 5 cell (83 %) have expected count less than 5 (as, expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio is observed. The overall Likelihood Ratio yielded a significant result (Likelihood Ratio = 111.370; d.f. = 4; $p < .01$). This suggests that the sample result be generalised to the population, within country conference participation has a positive impact on publication productivity. Accordingly, the number of within-country conference participation has an impact on productivity patterns. It seemed that respondents who have attended national conferences were more often highly productive. Thus the hypothesis is supported. The strength of the relationship is strong (Cramer's V .31).

In a first step, we controlled for hierarchical positions, and it was found in all the group of respondents, the academic conference participations have improved the research productivity of the respondents. These findings revealed that participation in the academic conference is crucial for learning, growth and networking which could be beneficial for the academicians in the long run. Various researchers and academicians deemed the participation in academic conferences magnanimously important. Similarly a study by World Health organisation on the significance of disseminating the research finding shared that researcher's attend the academics conferences to share their research results, get a feedback from other participants and to improve their work, to prepare the papers for international publications, to learn new topics, methods, applications of a certain research domain, to get knowledge about critical aspects in certain research domains, for networking, to establish cooperation with

other universities or research centres, to attend the presentations of the keynote speaker, to understand why a person became a keynote speaker at the conference, to get a quick overview of recent knowledge and discussions on certain topics, and finally to cherish the beauty to live international diversity (WHO, 2014). So the inclusion in the broader networking forum could immensely help the academicians to build the rapport, and social capital requires improving the credentials.

4.8.3 Minimal Thesis Supervision

The social capital can be a powerful personal asset that gives individual's access to useful resources and can improve their position. The inclusion in broader networking opportunities and supportive working conditions could effectively enhance the social capital of individuals. The provision of research supervision could be one indicator of enhancing the social capital, as it could lead to better research productivity of supervisor-supervisee. However, the studies highlighted that women academic might have a lower probability to be supervising the research work due to unequal workload distributions and complex working conditions and challenges (Taylor-Abdulai et al., 2014; Shen, 2013; Jones et al., 2012; Uche & Jack, 2014). So the following hypothesis was developed:-

Hypothesis: Respondents with more thesis supervision publish more compared to respondents with fewer thesis supervision.

Table 23 Thesis Supervision's influence on Research Productivity

| Hierarchy | | | | Thesis Supervision | | | | Total |
|--------------------|-------------|----------|--------|--------------------|----------|-------------|--------------|--------|
| | | | | 0 Thesis | 1 Thesis | 2 Thesis | 3+ Theses | |
| Lecture & Below | Publication | 0 Pub. | Count | 144 | 12 | 18 | 22 | 196 |
| | | | % w.Th | 81.4 % | 46.2 % | 58.1 % | 52.4 % | 71.0 % |
| | | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 29 | 10 | 13 | 16 | 68 |
| | | | % w.Th | 16.4 % | 38.5 % | 41.9 % | 38.1 % | 24.6 % |
| | Total | 5+ Pub. | Count | 4 | 4 | 0 | 4 | 12 |
| | | | % w.Th | 2.3 % | 15.4 % | 0.0 % | 9.5 % | 4.3 % |
| | | | Count | 177 | 26 | 31 | 42 | 276 |
| | | | % w.Th | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

| | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|--------------|----------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Assistant Professor | Publication | 0 Pub. | Count | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| | | | % w.Th | 7.5 % | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 3.3 % |
| | | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 17 | 5 | 7 | 14 | 43 |
| | | | % w.Th | 42.5 % | 25.0 % | 58.3 % | 70.0 % | 46.7 % |
| | | 5+ Pub. | Count | 20 | 15 | 5 | 6 | 46 |
| | | | % w.Th | 50.0 % | 75.0 % | 41.7 % | 30.0 % | 50.0 % |
| | Total | | Count | 40 | 20 | 12 | 20 | 92 |
| | | | % w.Th | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Associate Professor | Publications | 0 Pub. | Count | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| | | | % w.Th | 18.2 % | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 8.3 % |
| | | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| | | | % w.Th | 45.5 % | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 20.8 % |
| | | 5+ Pub. | Count | 4 | 2 | 4 | 7 | 17 |
| | | | % w.Th | 36.4 % | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 70.8 % |
| | Total | | Count | 11 | 2 | 4 | 7 | 24 |
| | | | % w.Th | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Professor | Publications | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| | | | % w.Th | 0.0 % | 0.0 % | 33.3 % | 0.0 % | 5.3 % |
| | | 5+ Pub. | Count | 5 | 6 | 2 | 5 | 18 |
| | | | % w.Th | 100.0% | 100.0% | 66.7 % | 100.0% | 94.7 % |
| | Total | | Count | 5 | 6 | 3 | 5 | 19 |
| | | | % w.Th | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| Total | Publications | 0 Pub. | Count | 149 | 12 | 18 | 22 | 201 |
| | | | % w.Th | 63.9 % | 22.2 % | 36.0 % | 29.7 % | 48.9 % |
| | | 1-4 Pub. | Count | 51 | 15 | 21 | 30 | 117 |
| | | | % w.Th | 21.9 % | 27.8 % | 42.0 % | 40.5 % | 28.5 % |
| | | 5+ Pub. | Count | 33 | 27 | 11 | 22 | 93 |
| | | | % w.Th | 14.2 % | 50.0 % | 22.0 % | 29.7 % | 22.6 % |
| | Total | | Count | 233 | 54 | 50 | 74 | 411 |
| | | | % w.Th | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Of the respondents, without any thesis supervision, 81 percent did not have any publication in Lecturer and below respondents. By contrast, 52 percent respondents with three and more thesis publication did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents without thesis supervision are non-productive more often compared to the respondents with 3 and more thesis supervision (+ 29 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without thesis supervision, 2 percent have five and more publications in Lecturer and below respondents. By contrast, 10 percent respondents with

three and more thesis supervision have five and more publications. Thus, the respondents with thesis supervision are more productive more often compared to the respondents without thesis supervision (+ 8 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without any thesis supervision, 8 percent did not have any publication in Assistant Professor respondents. By contrast, 0 percent respondents with three and more thesis publication did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents without thesis supervision are non-productive more often compared to the respondents with 3 and more thesis supervision (+ 8 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without thesis supervision, 50 percent have five and more publications in Assistant Professor respondents. By contrast, 30 percent respondents with three and more thesis supervision have five and more publications. Thus, the respondents without thesis supervision are more productive more often compared to the respondents with three and more thesis supervision (+ 20 percentage points) in Assistant Professor respondents. This is 25 percentage points lower than the respondents with one thesis supervision.

Of the respondents, without any thesis supervision, 18 percent did not have any publication in Associate Professor respondents. By contrast, 0 percent respondents with three and more thesis publication did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents without thesis supervision are non-productive more often compared to the respondents with 3 and more thesis supervision (+ 18 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without thesis supervision, 36 percent have five and more publications in Associate Professor respondents. By contrast, 100 percent respondents with three and more thesis supervision have five and more publications. Thus, the respondents with three and more thesis supervision are more productive more often compared to the respondents without thesis supervision (+ 64 percentage points) in Associate Professor respondents.

Of the respondents, without any thesis supervision, 0 percent did not have any publication in Professor respondents. By contrast, 0 percent respondents with three and more thesis publication did not have any publication. Thus, the professor respondents with and without thesis supervision not non-productive).

Of the respondents, without thesis supervision, 100 percent have five and more publications in Professor respondents. By contrast, 100 percent respondents with three and more thesis supervision have five and more publications. Thus, the respondents with and/or without thesis supervision are more productive.

Of all the respondents, without any thesis supervision, 64 percent did not have any publication. By contrast, 30 percent respondents with three and more thesis supervision did not have any publication. Thus, the respondents without thesis supervision are non-productive more often compared to the respondents with 3 and more thesis supervision (+ 34 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without thesis supervision, 14 percent have five and more publications. By contrast, 30 percent respondents with three and more thesis supervision have five and more publications. Thus the respondents with more thesis supervision are more often productive (+ 16 percentage points). The respondents with one thesis supervision 50 percent are 28 percentage points more productive than then respondents with two thesis supervision 22 percent. Thus, the respondents with thesis supervision were highly productive compared to the respondents without thesis supervision.

Overall 7 cell (88 %) have expected count less than 5 (as, expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), due to multilevel analysis expected count dropped in various cells, so the Likelihood Ratio is observed. The overall Likelihood Ratio yielded a significant result (Likelihood Ratio = 61.351; d.f. = 4; $p < .01$). This suggests that the sample result be generalised to the population, thesis supervision has a positive impact on higher publication productivity. Accordingly, the number of thesis supervision has a high impact on productivity patterns. Thus the hypothesis is supported. The strength of association is strong (Cramer's V .31).

The findings are endorsing the literature that research supervision helps the academics to improve the skills and efficiency necessary to climb the hierarchical ladder vertically. As a study by Usman (2015) in Pakistan endorsed that research and thesis supervision deemed beneficial for supervisors. Simultaneously, it was found that research supervision is regarded as the process of enhancing the professional growth of the academics that helps to strengthen the areas of expertise (Usman, 2015). Similarly, a study by the National Open University of Nigeria suggested that research supervision helps academics to acquire skills, which are

crucial to being operative, skilled and finally helps them to excel in the profession (NOUN, 2006).

When assessing the productivity and thesis supervision of the respondents, it is important to consider the fact that the question in the questionnaire used to measure the productivity and thesis supervision was in last five years reference period. So in last five year respondents who have supervised BS (Hons) and Master thesis were highly productive.

4.9 Societal Barrier

According to some researchers, another impediment for women at workplace is sexual harassment (Anila, 1998; Guerrier & Amel, 2004; Haarr & Morash, 2013; Hrcp, 2000; ILO, 2001; Karega, 2002; Konrad & Gutek, 1986; Lockwood et al., 2007; Luthar & Luthar, 2007; McDonald, 2012, McDonald, Charles Worth, & Graham, 2015; Okechukwu et al., 2014; Pollard, 2006; Scott & Martin, 2006; Weiss, 2012).

The scientific debate has suggested that many inequalities and barriers women face in the workplace may stem from societal practices and patriarchal setups. The patriarchal mindset also prevails in the organisational arena where male considered being more competent, authoritative, hardworking and skilled enough to take decisions and antagonistically women are deemed to be emotional, dependent, and need to be controlled by men (Dlamini & Adams, 2014). Connell's well-known theory of Hegemonic Masculinity (1987) emphasises on the gender relations, the dominant position of men and the subordination of women in society. Simultaneously Connell's (1995) theory views, gender as a social institution as much as an individual characteristic. Gender helps people meet their basic needs by shaping how they organise themselves in families, schools, the workplace, and other institutions. While any number of possible gender ideologies could be invoked to structure social interactions, it is the ideals of 'Hegemonic Masculinity' that shape norms of gendered interaction. Connell, MacKinnon, Martin, and Quinn all points to the conclusion that people who cannot or will not conform to standards of hegemonic masculinity (i.e. women) will be vulnerable to workplace harassment. Berdahl (2007) reconceptualises sexual harassment as sex-based harassment, defined as "behaviour that derogates, demeans, or humiliates an individual based on that individual's sex". Sex-based harassment is not driven

by sexual desire, but rather by an underlying motivation to protect sex-based social standing. As a result, targets of sex-based harassment are most likely to be women who threaten men's status. Berdahl (2007) found that women with stereotypically masculine personalities (assertive, dominant, and independent) were more likely than other women to experience harassment at school, among friends, or at work (Berdahl, 2007; McLaughlin, Uggen, and Blackstone, 2009). So, it is assumed that sexual harassment prevalence and experience could be a tool of patriarchal practices and hegemonic masculinities of controlling the work and life of women. Thus, it is significant to find to what extent sexual harassment was prevalent and experienced by respondents working on various hierarchical levels and working in various universities. Therefore it hypothesises:-

Hypothesis: Hegemonic masculinities and patriarchal practices could impede the work and productivity and make it challenging for women to access the higher hierarchical positions.

The indicator to measure the patriarchal practices to hamper the advancement of academic careers (positions) in the following section will be sexual harassment experience of women working in universities.

4.9.1 Sexual Harassment Experience of Respondents

In the last three decades, acknowledgement of sexual harassment of women at the workplace has reached a global scale (Lim & Lee, 2011; Okechukwu et al., 2014; Popovich & Warren, 2010). It is suggested that sexual harassment is an everyday crisis that hypothetically affected every working woman (Holmes & Flood, 2013).

According to surveys and studies, 93% of the women in Pakistan have reported one or other form of sexual harassment in their workplace in Pakistan (Baber, 2007; HRCP, 2000; Sarwar & Nauman, 2011). Other studies also suggested that probably every Pakistani woman has been harassed at least once in public and/or workplace (Yousaf, 2011; Yousaf & Mahmood, 2012; Weiss, 2012). Furthermore, a study by McLaughlin, Uggen and Blackstone (2009) found that "the strongest and most consistent risk for women aspiring authority positions is harassment" (McLaughlin, Uggen, and Blackstone, 2009). Thus, it hypothesises:-

Hypothesis: Respondents working on lower hierarchical levels experience sexual harassment more frequently compared to respondents working on higher hierarchical levels.

Table 24 Sexual Harassment Experience of Respondents

| | | | Hierarchical Positions | | | | Total |
|---------------------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|-----------------|--------|
| | | | Lecturer and below | Asstt. Prof | Associate Prof | Professor | |
| Experience of Sexual Harassment | No | Count | 36 _a | 9 _a | 4 _a | 2 _a | 51 |
| | | % within He. | 13.0 % | 9.8 % | 16.7 % | 10.5 % | 12.4 % |
| | Yes | Count | 240 _a | 83 _a | 20 _a | 17 _a | 360 |
| | | % within He. | 87.0 % | 90.2 % | 83.3 % | 89.5 % | 87.6 % |
| Total | Count | | 276 | 92 | 24 | 19 | 411 |
| | % within He. | | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Designation categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the .05 level.

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 13 percent have not experienced sexual harassment. By contrast, 11 percent of the Professors have not experienced the sexual harassment. Thus, the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents without sexual harassment experience are more compared to the professors (+ 2 percentage points).

Of the Lecturer and below respondents 87 percent have experienced sexual harassment. By contrast, 90 percent Professors have experienced sexual harassment. Thus, the Professors have experienced harassment more often compared to Lecturer and below respondents (+ 3 percentage points). This experience is equivalent to Assistant Professor respondents 90 percent, and 4 percentage point more than Associate Professors. It seems respondents working on various hierarchical levels have significant similarities in sexual harassment experience despite the hierarchical positions. The Professor (older) and Assistant Professor (relatively young) have a higher experience, and Associate Professors (relatively older) have less experience than Lecturer and below.

As 2 cells (25 %) have expected count less than 5 (as expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio is observed. The overall Likelihood Ratio

yielded a marginally significant result (Likelihood Ratio = 1.156; d.f. = 3; $p < .1$). This suggests that the sample result cannot be generalised to the population. However, post-hoc testing indicated no significant differences between the groups. However, it generated the weak relationship (Cramer's V is .05).

Analysing the results based on hierarchical positions, there was four categories and 36 percent Lecturer and below respondents has not experienced the harassment. On the other hand, 11 percent Professor, 10 percent Assistant Professors, 17 percent Associate Professors have not experienced the harassment. It seemed that Lecturer and below respondents have lower sexual harassment encounters as compared to other respondents. On the other hand, Lecturer and below respondents have lower sexual harassment experience as compared to Professors and Assistant Professor (90 %, -3 percentage points). However, Lecturer and below have experienced more harassment as compared to Associate Professor (87 %, +4 percentage points). It seemed that respondents did not vary significantly in sexual harassment experience and hypothesis is also not supported that respondents working on lower hierarchical levels experience sexual harassment more frequently compared to the respondents working on higher hierarchical levels. However, the experiences of Professors and Assistant Professors were highest among the other groups.

It is important to note that Assistant Professorial (AP) rank can be attained straight away after the doctoral degree without any prior teaching or research experiences, So, it is assumed that Assistant Professors (soon after PhD completion) might be enthusiastic to improve the academic credentials, and it was also found in this research that highly productive respondents among Professorial ranks were more often working as Assistant Professors. So, it seemed that sexual harassment experience and productivity of the respondents might have an important connection.

So, it could be assumed that women who are active, enthusiastic, competent and pursuing the authority position, who challenge their subordinate gender positions, and who poses a threat to authority positions, could be more vulnerable (McLaughlin, Uggen, & Blackstone, 2012) as compared to previous culturally constructed perceptions that weak, meek, shy and non-confident women might experience harassment more often (Lips, 2017).

It is important to consider the fact that the question in the questionnaire used to measure the sexual harassment experience of respondents was general experience lifetime

(working life in universities) reference period on the work and/or on their way to university without specifying the culprit (within the department or outside the department, on university premises, and/or on the way and back from work).

4.9.2 Sexual Harassment Experience in Various Universities

There were four different types of universities (variation in type and size) in the sample, so it is significant to find if there are any significant differences between and among universities in regards to sexual harassment experience. A study by Hunt et al. (2007) noted if management allows a climate of disrespect to exist within an organization, this toleration leads to sneering to be taken for granted, leading to the creation of an 'incivility spiral' (low-intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm the target (Andersson & Pearson 1999). It is assumed that large universities might have lower controls compared to small university because in small premises and management setting exercise of controlling and monitoring the individual behaviour could be more effective. So the following hypothesis was developed.

Hypothesis: Respondents working in large public and private universities experience sexual harassment more often compared to respondents working in a small public university.

Table 45 Sexual Harassment Experience of Respondents in Various Universities

| | | | Type of the University | | | | Total |
|------------------------------|-----|---------------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------|
| | | | Large Public | Large Public-Private | Large Private | Small Public | |
| Sexual Harassment Experience | No | Count | 22 _a | 12 _{a, b} | 7 _a | 10 _b | 51 |
| | | % ToU. | 10.9 % | 13.2 % | 8.0 % | 31.2 % | 12.4% |
| | Yes | Count | 179 _a | 79 _{a, b} | 80 _a | 22 _b | 360 |
| | | % ToU. | 89.1 % | 86.8 % | 92.0 % | 68.8 % | 87.6 % |
| Total | | Count | 201 | 91 | 87 | 32 | 411 |
| | | % within ToU. | 100.0 % | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0 % |
| | | | | | | | |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Name of the University categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the .05 level.

Of the respondents in large public university, 89 percent have experienced harassment. By contrast, respondents in small public university 69 percent have experienced harassment. Thus the harassment experience in small public university less than the large public university (- 20 percentage points)

Of the respondents in large public-private university, 87 percent have experienced harassment. By contrast, respondents in small public university 69 percent have experienced harassment. Thus, the harassment experience in small public university was less than the large public-private university (- 18 percentage points).

Of the respondents in large private university, 92 percent have experienced harassment. By contrast, respondents in small public university 69 percent have experienced harassment. Thus, the harassment experience in small public university was less than the large private university (- 23 percentage points).

Of the respondents in large public university, 11 percent have not experienced sexual harassment. By contrast, 31 percent respondents in the small public university have not experienced the sexual harassment. Thus, respondents working in small public university experienced less harassment compared to the respondents in large public university (- 20 percentage points). This is 18 percentage points less than the respondents in large public-private, and 23 percentage points less than the respondents in large private university.

As 1 cell (13 %) have expected count less than 5 (as expected count less than 5 < 20 % = negligible), so the χ^2 -test is observed. The overall χ^2 -test yielded a significant result ($\chi^2 = 12.422^a$; d.f. = 3; $p < .01$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population. Accordingly, the small and public university has a larger impact on least prevalence of sexual harassment experience (Small and Public university -> less SH Experience). The Post-hoc testing indicated significant differences among the groups. The large public, large private and large public-private universities have similar trends, i.e. highest SH experiences of respondents, However, at the same time, small public and large public-private have similar trends (post- hoc testing), although the small public university has the lowest prevalence of SH. However, it generated the weak relationship (Cramer's V is.17).

Analysing the results based on the type of universities, there were four categories, and respondents in large public university have experienced harassment more as compared to respondents in small public university (69 %, +20 percentage points) the respondents in large

public-private university have experienced harassment more as compared to respondents in small public university (69 %, +18 percentage points) and the respondents in large private university have experienced harassment more as compared to respondents in small public university (69 %, +23 percentage points). The hypothesis is also supported that respondents working in large public, public-private and private universities experience sexual harassment more often compared to respondents working in a small public university.

It is assumed that large universities might have lower formal controls and more anonymity compared to the small university because in small premises and management setting exercise of controlling and monitoring the individual behaviour could be more efficient.

In the large universities employees of one department might not be aware of other department or institute's employees, at the same time much working staff (gardeners, guards, gate keepers, clerks) might not know the staff of the whole university. Even the students of one department could harass the faculty member of other department or institute. So under such circumstance, the anonymity of the large universities could enhance the sexual harassment encounters. Whereas on small premises and due to close proximity, it would be easy to identify the culprits, so there could be fewer incidences of harassment within the small university premises. It was found that sexual harassment was widely prevalent, similarly as a study by Hunt et al. (2007) suggested that climate of disrespect within an organisation might exist with lower organisational controls, however in large premises with effective formal controls incidence of sexual harassment could be diminished (Hunt et al. 2007).

4.9.3 Invisible Inhibition in Research Productivity

As scientific literature has endorsed that overwhelmingly contributing factor to women's low success in the labour market is sexual harassment (Lockwood et al., 2007; Luthar & Luthar, 2007; McDonald, 2012; Neall & Tuckey, 2014; Okechukwu et al., 2014; Pollard, 2006; Sandhu, Singh & Batra, 2015).

This factor of gender and workplace power labelled as the "power-threat" model, which suggests that women who pose a more significant threat to male dominance are more

likely targets of harassment (Cotter et al., 2001). A study by McLaughlin, Uggen, & Blackstone (2009) endorsed the notion that once women have successfully found their way into the workforce and landed in a position in their desired organisation, other types of discrimination become apparent because sexual harassment is less about sexual desire than about control and domination (McLaughlin, Uggen, & Blackstone, 2009). So the competence, enthusiasm, high research productivity in academia could be considered stereotypical traits of masculine personalities and non-conformity of women to hegemonic masculinities, so they would be vulnerable to harassment experiences. Therefore it hypothesises:-

Hypothesis: Highly productive respondents experienced sexual harassment more often compared to the less productive respondent.

Table 25 Research Productivity and Sexual Harassment Experience

| Age | | | | Number of Publications | | | Total |
|-------------------|---------------------------------|-----|--------|------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------|
| | | | | 0 publication | 1-4 publication | 5+ Publication | |
| 20-29 Year old | Experience of Sexual Harassment | Yes | Count | 115 _a | 48 _a | 21 _a | 184 |
| | | | % pub. | 86.5 % | 88.9 % | 87.5 % | 87.2 % |
| | | No | | 18 _a | 6 _a | 3 _a | 27 |
| | | | % pub. | 13.5 % | 11.1 % | 12.5 % | 12.8 % |
| | Total | | | 133 | 54 | 24 | 211 |
| | | | % pub. | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| 30-34 Year Old | Experience of Sexual Harassment | Yes | | 46 _a | 35 _a | 24 _a | 105 |
| | | | % pub. | 83.6 % | 97.2 % | 92.3 % | 89.7 % |
| | | No | | 9 _a | 1 _a | 2 _a | 12 |
| | | | % pub. | 16.4 % | 2.8 % | 7.7 % | 10.3 % |
| | Total | | | 55 | 36 | 26 | 117 |
| | | | % pub. | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| 35+Year Old | Experience of Sexual Harassment | Yes | | 10 _a | 25 _a | 36 _a | 71 |
| | | | % pub. | 76.9 % | 92.6 % | 83.7 % | 85.5 % |
| | | No | | 3 _a | 2 _a | 7 _a | 12 |
| | | | % pub. | 23.1 % | 7.4 % | 16.3 % | 14.5 % |
| | Total | | | 13 | 27 | 43 | 83 |
| | | | % pub. | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

| | | | | | | |
|-------|---------------|--------------------------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------|--------|
| Total | Experience of | Yes | 171 _a | 108 _a | 81 _a | 360 |
| | Sexual | % pub. | 85.1 % | 92.3 % | 87.1 % | 87.6 % |
| | Harassment | No | 30 _a | 9 _a | 12 _a | 51 |
| | | % pub. | 14.9 % | 7.7 % | 12.9 % | 12.4 % |
| | Total | | 201 | 117 | 93 | 411 |
| | | % within publications of | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Number of publications of Women categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the .05 level.

Of the respondents, without any publication, 87 percent have experienced sexual harassment. By contrast, 88 percent of respondents with 5 or more publications have experienced sexual harassment in young respondents from 20- 29 years old. Thus, the most productive respondents have experienced sexual harassment slightly more often (+ 1 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without any publication, 84 percent have experienced sexual harassment. By contrast, 92 percent of respondents with 5 or more publications have experienced sexual harassment in middle-aged respondents from 30- 34 years old. Thus, the most productive respondents have again experienced sexual harassment more often (+ 8 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without any publication, 77 percent have experienced sexual harassment. By contrast, 84 percent of respondents with 5 or more publications have experienced sexual harassment in older respondents from 35 and older. Thus, the most productive respondents have again experienced sexual harassment more often (+ 7 percentage points).

Of the respondents, without any publications, 85 percent have experienced sexual harassment. By contrast, 87 percent of respondents with 5 or more publications have experienced sexual harassment in totality. Thus, the most productive respondents have experienced sexual harassment more often overall (+2 percentage points). Respondents with one to four publications report to 92 percent that they have experienced sexual harassment. This is again higher the level of the respondents with no publications (+7 percentage points).

It seems that highly productive respondents with 5 or more publications and those working to improve their publications have experienced sexual harassment more often than the respondents with no publications.

As 2 cell (33 %) have expected count less than 5 (as, expected count less than 5 > 20 % = not negligible), so the Likelihood Ratio is observed. The overall Likelihood Ratio yielded a marginally significant result (Likelihood Ratio = 3.851; d.f. = 2; not significant). It suggested that the differences did not reach the statistical threshold and hypothesis is not supported that highly productive respondents experience sexual harassment more often compared to the less productive respondent, however, it generated weak relationship (Cramer's V .12).

In a first step, we controlled for age. Based on the age distribution three categories were built. In the youngest group of respondents age, 20 to 29 87 percent of non-productive respondents have experienced sexual harassment. Similar to the overall finding, young respondents with 5 or more publications have experienced sexual harassment slightly more often (88 %, +1 percentage points). Interestingly, young respondents with one to four publications have experienced sexual harassment more often (89 %, + 2 percentage points) than young non-productive respondents.

In the middle-aged group of respondents age, 30 to 34 84 percent of non-productive respondents have experienced sexual harassment. Similar to the overall finding, middle-aged respondents with 5 or more publications have experienced sexual harassment more often (92 %, +8 percentage points). Interestingly, middle-aged respondents with one to four publications have experienced sexual harassment more often (97 %, +13 percentage points) than middle-aged non-productive respondents.

In the older group of respondents age, 35 and older, 77 percent of non-productive respondents have experienced sexual harassment. Similar to the overall finding, older respondents with 5 or more publications have experienced sexual harassment more often (84 %, +7 percentage points). Interestingly, older respondents with one to four publications have experienced sexual harassment more often (92 %, + 16 percentage points) than older non-productive respondents.

With reference to productivity, three categories were built 85 percent respondents without any publications have experienced the harassment. On the other hand, 87 percent

respondents with five and more publications have also experienced harassment. Although, the hypothesis is not supported, and Post hoc test does not show significant differences between and among the groups that highly productive respondents experienced sexual harassment more often compared to the less productive respondent.

When assessing the prevalence of sexual harassment experience, it is crucially important to consider the fact that the question in the questionnaire used a lifetime (working life in universities) reference period. Accordingly, the sexual harassment experience reported by respondents does not necessarily imply that these incidences occurred recently. Thus, it is likely that young respondents may have experienced fewer instances of sexual harassment. At the same time, the scientific productivity (number of publications) is a function of the advancement of the academic career (position) and therefore correlated to age. Accordingly, we have to control for the age of the respondents.

When assessing the productivity of the respondents, it is essential to consider the fact that the question in the questionnaire used to measure the productivity was in last five years reference period. So the results indicated that highly productive respondents in last five years had experienced sexual harassment more often.

It was found that harassment was widely prevalent and experienced by women working in universities on various hierarchical levels in the university premises, on the way and back from work, under such conditions the implementation of Harassment Act in general and in universities is crucial, and therefore the next section intended to measure the respondent's level of information regarding the measure taken in their university regarding the implementation of harassment Act.

4.10 Sexual Harassment Act (2010) and It's Implementation

It is found in a current study that vast majority of respondents 88 percent working in four different type of universities have experienced sexual harassment. Consistently, according to other surveys and studies, sexual harassment is an enormous problem in Pakistani society in general and in workplace specifically (Baber, 2007; HRCF, 2000; Sarwar & Nauman, 2011; Yousaf, 2011; Yousaf & Mahmood, 2012; Weiss, 2012). Recently, due to enhanced participation of women in the workplace the effective implementation of

Harassment Act in universities specifically and at the workplace, in general, is inevitable, to encourage the women to work with full potential.

There have been the Laws in the world for some good time to protect the women in the workplace like sexual harassment Law. These prohibitions provide criminal and/or individual penalties for discriminatory practices against the women (Gillni, 2010). The Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace Act (2010) first time recognised the legal status of sexual harassment in the country (Jabbar & Imran, 2013). At the same, Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC) has directed the Higher Education Institutes (HEI) to establish an educational program to prevent the incidents of sexual harassment. It was also recommended that all Administrators, Deans, Managers, Department Chairs, Directors of Schools or Programs and others in supervisory or leadership positions have an obligation to be familiar with and to endorse this policy, along with informing its staff by organising seminar, displaying the Act, and constituting the committee in their respective department, institutes and school (HEC, 2011). Although the implementation of Harassment Act is mandatory for public and private workplaces and HEI, however, it is assumed that public universities would be adhering to directions more often, (as they depend on public funds) compared to private and public-private universities of the sample. The second research question of the study was:-

1. Inadequate Implementation of Protection against Harassment of Women in the Workplace Act, (2010) promotes the bigotry against women in universities.

The subsequent question was:-

2. To what extent Protection against Harassment of Women in the Workplace Act, (2010) was implemented in universities to protect working rights of women?

So, the following section meant to explore, to what extent the respondents were informed (by departmental implementation procedures) or to what extent the respondents were aware of the implementation of Harassment Act within their department/institute/school/universities. This section will give an insight of implementation of Workplace Act within universities, and in the second phase of the study (in-depth interviews, Chapter 5), this information could be verified that to what extent Act was implemented by the head of the departments/ institute/schools.

4.10.1 Sexual Harassment Act (2010) Knowledge of Respondents

The HEC has made it mandatory for the Heads/Deans/ Chairs of universities to implement the Harassment Act by informing the staff and students by organizing the seminars, displaying the Act in the entrances of departments/ schools/ institute and by formulating the inquiry committee by appointing Harassment monitoring office (HMO) from the staff in case of harassment complaints. These measures are bindings for the Act's implementation. Therefore, it was assumed that respondents working on higher hierarchical position might be more knowledgeable as compared the junior respondents, as seniors members of the departments/schools/institutes were supposed to provide information to junior employees and students (HEC, 2011). Therefore, the following hypothesis was developed:-

Hypothesis: Respondents working on higher hierarchical levels have a higher level of awareness of Harassment Act compared to respondents working on lower hierarchical levels.

Table 26 Sexual Harassment Act (2010) Knowledge of Respondents

| | | | Hierarchical Position | | | | Total |
|----------------------|-----|-------------|-----------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------|
| | | | Lecturer and below | Asstt. Prof | Associate Prof | Professor | |
| Knowledge of SH. Act | Yes | Count | 119 _a | 54 _{a, b} | 14 _{a, b} | 15 _b | 202 |
| | | % HP. | 43.1 % | 58.7 % | 58.3 % | 78.9 % | 49.1 % |
| | No | Count | 157 _a | 38 _{a, b} | 10 _{a, b} | 4 _b | 209 |
| | | % HP. | 56.9 % | 41.3 % | 41.7 % | 21.1 % | 50.9 % |
| Total | | Count | 276 | 92 | 24 | 19 | 411 |
| | | % within HP | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Designation categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the .05 level.

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents 43 percent have knowledge about Harassment Act. By contrast, 79 percent of the Professors have knowledge about the Harassment Act. Thus, the harassment Act knowledge of Professor respondents was more compared to Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents (+36 percentage points). It

seems that Professors were 20 percentage points more knowledgeable compared to Assistant Professors 59 percent and 19 percentage points more knowledgeable compared to Associate Professors 58 percent.

Of the Lecturer and below hierarchical level 57 percent did not have knowledge about Harassment Act. By contrast, 21 percent Professors respondents did not have knowledge of Harassment Act. Thus, the Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents had least often knowledge about the Harassment Act (- 36 percentage points).

The overall χ^2 -test yielded a significant result ($\chi^2 = 14.935^a$; d.f. = 3; $p < .01$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population. The Post-hoc testing indicated significant differences among the groups. The Lecturer and below respondents were different from Professor respondents in knowledge about Harassment Act. However, Assistant Professor and Associate Professors were similar to Lecturer and below and Professor respondents, they have less knowledge about Harassment Act. However, it generated the weak relationship (Cramer's V is .19).

As far as the hierarchical positions were concerned, there were four categories, and Lecture and below respondents have less knowledge of Harassment Act as compared to Professor (21 %, - 36 percentage points). Similarly, Assistant Professors and Associate Professor have more knowledge of Harassment Act as compared to Lecture and below respondents (43 %, + 16 percentage points, +15 percentage points). It seemed that respondents working on Professorial ranks were more knowledgeable as compared to the respondents working in lower hierarchical positions. So the hypothesis is supported.

It can be assumed that for the implementation of Harassment Act in universities, head of departments was directed to appoint the one member of the staff to head the inquiry committee regarding the harassment complaints. There are more chances that senior member of the staff would be appointed to the committees. As a result, they might have more knowledge of the Harassment Act. However, this claim could be further explored in the following section, for the implementation of Harassment Act.

4.10.2 Sexual Harassment Act (2010) Knowledge in various Universities

There were four different types of universities in the sample. It was assumed that large universities might have more prevalence of harassment due to anonymity and extensive management structure as compared to small university where due to close proximity and effective conduciveness controls can be exercised. Simultaneously, it was also assumed that public universities (large, small) might have taken extensive measures to inform (by arranging seminars, displaying the Act and by constituting the committee) their worker regarding the Harassment Act, as public institutes would be more likely adhering to Governmental policies. Therefore, it was assumed that respondents' awareness level regarding harassment Act might vary from large and small public universities to public-private and private universities. So the following hypothesis was developed:-

Hypothesis: Respondents working in large and small public universities have a higher level of awareness of Harassment Act compared to respondent working in large public-private and private universities.

Table 27 Sexual Harassment Act (2010) Knowledge in various Universities

| | | | Type of the University | | | | Total |
|---|-----|-------------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------|
| | | | Large Public | Large Public Private | Large Private | Small Public | |
| Knowledge of Sexual Harassment Act 2010 | Yes | Count | 108 _a | 40 _a | 49 _a | 5 _b | 202 |
| | | % uni. | 53.7 % | 44.0 % | 56.3 % | 15.6 % | 49.1 % |
| | No | Count | 93 _a | 51 _a | 38 _a | 27 _b | 209 |
| | | % uni. | 46.3 % | 56.0 % | 43.7 % | 84.4 % | 50.9 % |
| Total | | Count | 201 | 91 | 87 | 32 | 411 |
| | | % | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |
| | | within uni. | | | | | |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Name of the University categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the .05 level.

Of the respondents in large public university, 54 percent have knowledge about harassment Act. By contrast, 16 percent respondents in the small public university have knowledge about harassment Act. Thus, the respondents in the large public university have more knowledge than respondents in small public university (+38 percentage points). The respondents in the large public university are 10 percentage points more knowledgeable than the respondents in large public-private university 44 percent, and 2 percentage points less knowledgeable than the respondents in large private university 56 percent.

Of the respondents in the large public university, 46 percent did not have knowledge about harassment Act. By contrast, 84 percent respondents in small public university did not have knowledge about harassment Act. Thus, the respondents in small public university had less knowledge about harassment Act than the respondents in the large public university (- 40 percentage points).

The overall χ^2 -test yielded a significant result ($\chi^2 = 18.851^a$; d.f. = 3; $p < .001$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population. The Post-hoc testing indicated significant differences between the groups. Accordingly, the respondents working in the small public university were different from the respondents working in other universities of the sample. The respondents in the small public university have less knowledge about the Harassment Act compared to respondents in other universities. However, it generated moderate relationship (Cramer's V.21).

As far as the type of universities were concerned, there were four categories and respondents in large public university 54 percent have knowledge of harassment Act as compared to the respondents in small public university (16 %, + 38 percentage points). Thus, the respondents in large public university were more often knowledgeable as compared to the respondents in small public university. Similarly, respondents in large public-private and large private university were more knowledgeable as compared to the respondents in small public university. Although, the hypothesis is supported that respondents working in large and small public universities have a higher level of awareness of Harassment Act compared to respondent working in large public-private and private universities, however it crucial to note that respondents in small public university were less knowledgeable as compared to the rest of the respondents in the sample.

Similarly, the respondents in the small public university have reported lowest sexual harassment (4.9.2) encounters as compared to other respondents. It can be assumed either due to the lack of knowledge about harassment, and Harassment Act, respondents in small public university, could not identify the harassment encounters (in in-depth interviews (Chapter 5) as a head of the department told that after attending a seminar regarding sexual harassment, she actually understood what harassment is) or they were unwilling to discuss sexual harassment topic as it was a new university and respondents were within their probation period (normally after 2 years of commencement of job, employees in public university get confirmation of permanent tenures) of new employment, and they were reluctant to report and discuss harassment on university premises or due to small premises and condusiveness there were actually low incidences of harassment on university premises. However, the question used in the questionnaire was within the university and on the way and back from university.

4.10.3 Implementation of Harassment Act in various Universities

Although, according to Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC) it is obligatory for public, private, small and large enterprises, universities and Institutes of Higher Education to fully and effectively implement the Harassment Act in their respective institutes and school. However, it was assumed that various universities might vary in the implementation of Harassment Act, but public universities would be more frequently adhering to the instruction of implementation of the Act, as they depend on the public funds and prone to adhere the laws compared to private universities. Although, the lack of public fund provision is not the excuse for private institutes because it was mandatory for all the public and private institutions to implement the Act, however in Pakistan the lack of implementaion of Laws and policies have been a grave problem since long. So the following hypothesis was developed.

Hypothesis: Small and large public universities have a higher level of implantation of Harassment Act compared to large public-private and private universities.

Table 28 Sexual Harassment Act's (2010) Implementation in various Universities

| | | | Type of the University | | | | Total |
|--------------------|-----|---------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------|
| | | | Large Public | Large Public -Private | Large Private | Small Public | |
| Act Implementation | Yes | Count | 39 _a | 13 _a | 13 _a | 5 _a | 70 |
| | | % University | 19.4 % | 14.3 % | 14.9 % | 15.6 % | 17.0 % |
| | No | Count | 162 _a | 78 _a | 74 _a | 27 _a | 341 |
| | | % University | 80.6 % | 85.7 % | 85.1 % | 84.4 % | 83.0 % |
| Total | | Count | 201 | 91 | 87 | 32 | 411 |
| | | % within University | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Name of the University categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the .05 level.

Of the respondents in the large public university, 19 percent said harassment Act was implemented in university. By contrast, 16 percent respondents in small public university said harassment Act implemented. Thus the respondents in small public university told less often than respondents in the large public university that harassment Act was implemented (- 3 percentage points).

Of the respondents in the large public-private university, 14 percent said harassment Act was implemented. By contrast, 16 percent respondents in small public university and 19 percent in large public university said harassment Act implemented. Thus, the respondents in large public-private university told less often than respondents in the small public university (- 2 percentage points) that harassment Act was implemented. This is 5 percentage points less than respondents in large public university.

Of the respondents in the large private university, 15 percent said harassment Act was implemented. By contrast, 16 percent respondents in small public university and 19 percent in large public university said harassment Act implemented. Thus, the respondents in large private university told less often than respondents in the small public university (- 1 percentage points) that harassment Act was implemented. This is 4 percentage points less than respondents in large public university.

Of the respondents in large public university, 81 percent have told that harassment Act was not implemented. By contrast, 84 percent respondents in the small public university have told that harassment Act was not implemented. Thus, the respondents in the large public

university have less often endorsed than respondents in small public university (- 3 percentage points) that the harassment Act was not implemented. The respondents in the large public university have endorsed 6 percent less than the respondents in large public-private university 86 percent, and 5 percentage points less than the respondents in large private university 85 percent that the harassment Act was not implemented.

The overall χ^2 -test yielded insignificant result ($\chi^2 = 1.599^a$; d.f. = 3; $p > .1$). This suggests that the sample result cannot be generalised to the population. Accordingly, public universities did not vary in the implantation of harassment compared to private and public-private university. The Post-doc testing indicated no significant differences among the groups. It generated very strong relationship (Cramer's V .66).

Based on the type of universities, four categories were built, and respondents in large public university told that harassment Act was implemented as compared to the respondents in small public university (16 %, +3 percentage points). Thus the respondents in large public university told more often as compared respondents in small public university that harassment Act was implemented. Similarly, respondents in large public-private (14 %) and large private university (15 %) told that Harassment Act was implemented in their respective universities. Like the vast majority, more than 80 percent of each university have told that Harassment Act was not implemented in their university. So the hypothesis is not supported that small and large public universities have a higher level of implantation of Harassment Act compared to large public-private and private universities.

Simultaneously public universities were also less likely adhering to the HEC directions regarding the implementation of Act. Although the vast majority of the responded have reported that Harassment Act was not implemented, however, it was crucial to explore further, if some of the other directions of implementation mechanism might have implemented in universities and respondents might be unaware of the exact name of Harassment Act.

4.10.4 Display of Harassment Act in Various Universities

One of the main clauses of harassment Act for its implementation is that the Act should be displayed in institutes and departments entrances or the place where the faculty,

students and visitors can easily see and read it. Although from previous section significant majority from each university has told that harassment Act was not implemented at their respective university. However, some mandatory query was done, to see if other requirements of implementation were met. So the following hypothesis was developed:-

Hypothesis: Small and large public universities have a higher level of display of Harassment Act compared to large public-private and private universities.

Table 29 Sexual Harassment Act's (2010) Display in various Universities

| | | | Type of the University | | | | Total |
|--------------------------|-----|---------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------|
| | | | Large Public | Large public-private | Large Private | Small Public | |
| Harassment Act displayed | Yes | Count | 17 _a | 6 _a | 12 _a | 1 _a | 36 |
| | | % Uni. | 8.5 % | 6.6 % | 13.8 % | 3.1 % | 8.8 % |
| | No | Count | 184 _a | 85 _a | 75 _a | 31 _a | 375 |
| | | % Uni. | 91.5 % | 93.4 % | 86.2 % | 96.9 % | 91.2 % |
| Total | | Count | 201 | 91 | 87 | 32 | 411 |
| | | % within University | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Type of the University categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the .05 level.

Of the respondents in the large public university, 9 percent said harassment Act was displayed in their department/university. By contrast, 3 percent respondents in small public university said harassment Act was displayed in their department/university. Thus, the respondents in the large public university told harassment Act was displayed in their department/university more often (+ 6 percentage points).

Of the respondents in the large public-private university, 7 percent said harassment Act was displayed in their department/university. By contrast, 3 percent respondents in small public said harassment Act were displayed in their department/university. Thus, the respondents in large public-private university told that harassment Act was displayed in their department/university more often (+ 4 percentage points). This is 2 percentage points less than the respondents in large public university, and 7 percentage points less than the

respondents in large private university that Harassment Act was displayed in their department/university.

Of the respondents in the large private university, 14 percent said harassment Act was displayed in their department/university. By contrast, 3 percent respondents in small public university said harassment Act was displayed in their department/university. Thus, the respondents in large private university told that harassment Act was displayed in their department/university more often (+ 11 percentage points). This is 6 percentage points more than the respondents in large public university 9 percent, and 7 percentage point more than the respondents in large public-private university 7percent that Harassment Act was displayed in their department/university more often.

Of the respondents in large public university, 92 percent said harassment Act was not displayed in their department/university. By contrast, 97 percent respondents in small public university told that Act was not displayed in their department/university. Thus, the respondents in large public university told less often that Act was not displayed in their department/university as compared to small public university (- 5 percentage points). This is 2 percentage points less than the respondents in large public-private university 93 percent. However, this is 5 percentage points more than the respondents in large private university 86 percent.

As one cell (13 %) have expected count less than 5 (as expected count less than $5 < 20\%$ = negligible), so the χ^2 -test is observed. The overall χ^2 -test yielded an insignificant result ($\chi^2 = 4.587^a$; d.f. = 3; $p > .1$). This suggests that the sample result cannot be generalised to the population. Accordingly, public universities did not vary in a display of harassment Act compared to private and public-private university. The Post-doc testing indicated no significant differences among the groups. It generated weak relationship (Cramer's V .11).

Analysing based on the type of universities, four categories were built, and respondents in large public university told more often that harassment Act was displayed as compared to the respondents in small public university (3 %, + 6 percentage points) percent. Thus the respondents in large public university told more often as compared respondents in small public university that harassment Act was displayed. Similarly, respondents in large public-private (7 %) and large private university (14 %) told that Harassment Act was

displayed in their respective universities. Like the vast majority, more than 80 percent respondents in each university have told that Harassment Act was not displayed in their university. So the hypothesis is not supported that small and large public universities have a higher level of display of Harassment Act compared to large public-private and private universities.

Although, the respondents from large public and large private universities have told more often that Harassment Act was displayed as compared to large public-private and small public university respondents. However, it seemed, it is less likely that universities were adhering to the direction of display of Act, as a substantial majority of respondents have not seen it displayed in their corresponding department/institute/school.

Simultaneously along with asking the question to the respondents regarding the display of the harassment Act in the universities, it was also observed during the data collection phase (survey and in-depth interviews), none of the universities in the sample has displayed it anywhere in concerned departments/institutes/schools.

4.10.5 Organisation of Seminar(s) in Various Universities

One of the main clauses of harassment Act for its implementation was that universities and departments required organising the seminars, to create the awareness among the faculty and students. So the following hypothesis was developed:-

Hypothesis: Small and large public universities have a higher level of organised seminars regarding Harassment Act awareness as compared to large public-private and private universities.

Table 30 Sexual Harassment Act (2010) Awareness Seminar in various Universities

| | | | Name of the University | | | | Total |
|------------------------|-----|---------------------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------|
| | | | Large Public | Large Public Private | Large Private | Small Public | |
| Harassment Act Seminar | Yes | Count | 55 _a | 10 _b | 27 _a | 0 _b | 92 |
| | | % University | 27.4 % | 11.0 % | 31.0 % | 0.0 % | 22.4 % |
| | No | Count | 146 _a | 81 _b | 60 _a | 32 _b | 319 |
| | | % University | 72.6 % | 89.0 % | 69.0 % | 100.0% | 77.6 % |
| Total | | Count | 201 | 91 | 87 | 32 | 411 |
| | | % within University | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Name of the University categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the .05 level.

Of the respondents in large public university, 27 percent said their department/institute had organised the seminar to create the awareness of the Harassment Act. By contrast, none of the participants in small public university 0 percent said their department/institute had organised the seminar to create the awareness of the Harassment Act. Thus, the respondents in large public university said their department/institute had organised the seminar to create the awareness about the harassment Act more often (+ 27 percentage points).

Of the respondents in large public-private university, 11 percent said their department/institute had organised the seminar to create the awareness of the Harassment Act. By contrast, none of the participants in small public university 0 percent said their department/institute had organised the seminar to create the awareness of the Harassment Act. Thus, the respondents in large public-private university said more often than the respondents in small public university that their department/institute had organised the seminar to create the awareness of the Harassment Act (+ 11 percentage points). This is 16 percentage points less than the respondents in large public university, and 20 percentage points less than the respondents in large private university that their department/institute had organised the seminar to create the awareness about the Harassment Act.

Of the respondents in large private university, 31 percent said their department/institute had organised the seminar to create the awareness of the Harassment

Act. By contrast, none of the participants in small public university 0 percent said their department/institute had organised the seminar to create the awareness of the Harassment Act. Thus, the respondents in large private university said more often than the respondents in small public university that their department/institute had organised the seminar to create the awareness of the Harassment Act (+ 31 percentage points). This is 4 percentage points more than the respondents in large public university and 20 percentage points more than the respondents in large public-private university that their department/institute had organised the seminar to create the awareness about the Harassment Act.

Of the respondents in large public university, 73 percent said their department/institute had not organised the seminar to create the awareness of the Harassment Act. By contrast, 100 percent respondents in small public university told that their department/institute had not organised the seminar to create the awareness of the Harassment Act. Thus, the respondents in large public university told less often as compared to respondents in small public university that their department/institute had not organised the seminar to create the awareness of the Harassment Act (- 27 percentage points). This is 16 percentage points less than the respondents in large public-private university; however, this is 4 percentage points more than the respondents in large private university.

The overall χ^2 -test yielded significant result ($\chi^2 = 22.645^a$; d.f. = 3; $p < .001$). This suggests that the sample result can be generalised to the population. Accordingly, universities did vary in organising the seminar about harassment Act. The Post-doc testing indicates significant differences between and among the groups. The large public and large private had similar trends in organising the seminar, at the same time large public-private and small public universities have similar trends. So, small public and large public-private universities had organised the seminar to create awareness among respondents least often. It generated moderate relationship (Cramer's V .24).

As far as the type of universities were concerned, there were four categories, and respondents in large public university told more often that seminars regarding harassment Act awareness were organised as compared to the respondents in small public university (0 %, + 27 percentage points). Thus the respondents in large public university told more often as compared respondents in small public university that seminars regarding harassment Act awareness were organised. Similarly, respondents in large public-private (11 %) and large

private university (31 %) told that seminars regarding harassment Act awareness were organised in their respective universities. The vast majority of each university have told that seminars regarding harassment Act awareness were not organised in their university as they have not attended and heard in the department that any such seminar was ever organised. So the hypothesis is not supported that small and large public universities have a higher level of Harassment Act awareness seminars compared to large public-private and private universities.

It seemed if the vast majority of the respondents have not attended or was unaware of such seminars, organised by their corresponding department/institute/ school, it is less likely that any such seminar has ever been organised and universities have followed the direction of HEC regarding the arrangement of seminars.

4.10.6 Constitution of Committee in Various Universities

Finally, as per the Harassment Act clauses, it was also mandatory to constitute the committee to deal with the sexual harassment complaints by appointing Harassment Monitoring Officer (HMO) from the staff of respective department/ school/ institute along with informing members of their staff about its existence. So the following hypothesis was developed:-

Hypothesis: Small and large public universities have a higher level of constituted committees of Harassment Act compared to large public-private and private universities.

Table 31 Sexual Harassment Act (2010) Complaint committee in various Universities

| | | | Type of the University | | | | Total |
|-----------------------|-----|---------------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------|
| | | | Large Public | Large Public-Private | Large Private | Small Public | |
| Committee Constituted | Yes | Count | 67 _a | 25 _a | 18 _a | 11 _a | 121 |
| | | % Uni. | 33.3 % | 27.5 % | 20.7 % | 34.4 % | 29.4 % |
| | No | Count | 134 _a | 66 _a | 69 _a | 21 _a | 290 |
| | | % Uni. | 66.7 % | 72.5 % | 79.3 % | 65.6 % | 70.6 % |
| Total | | Count | 201 | 91 | 87 | 32 | 411 |
| | | % within Uni. | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Each subscript letter denotes a subset of Name of the University categories whose column proportions do not differ significantly from each other at the .05 level.

Of the respondents in large public university, 33 percent said their department/institute had constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints. By contrast, 34 percent of the participant in small public university said their department/institute had constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints. Thus, the respondents in large public university said their department/institute had constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints slightly more than respondents in small public university (+ 1 percentage points).

Of the respondents in large public-private university, 28 percent said their department/institute had constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints. By contrast, 34 percent of the participant in small public university said their department/institute had constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints. Thus, the respondents in large public-private university said less often than the respondents in small public university that their department/institute had constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints (- 6 percentage points). This is 5 percentage points less than the respondents in large public university and 7 percentage points more than the respondents in large private university that their department/institute had constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints.

Of the respondents in large private university, 21 percent said their department/institute had constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints. By

contrast, 34 percent of the participant in small public university said their department/institute had constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints. Thus, the respondents in large private university said less often than the respondents in small public university that their department/institute had constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints (-13 percentage points). This is 12 percentage points less than the respondents in large public university, and 7 percentage points less than the respondents in private university that their department/institute had constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints.

Of the respondents in large public university, 67 percent said their department/institute had not constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints. By contrast, 66 percent respondents in small public university said their department/institute had not constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints. Thus, the respondents in large public university said slightly more often than the respondents in small public university that their department/institute had not constituted the committee to deal with harassment complaints. This is slightly more than the respondents in small public university (+ 1 percentage points). This is 6 percentage points less than the respondents in large public-private university, and 12 percentage points less than the respondents in large private university.

The overall χ^2 -test yielded an insignificant result ($\chi^2 = 5.218^a$; d.f. = 3; $p > .1$). This suggests that the sample result cannot be generalised to the population. Accordingly, universities did not vary in organising the seminar about harassment Act. The Post-doc testing indicates no significant differences between the groups. It generated weak relationship (Cramer's V .11).

Again analysing based on the type of universities, four categories were built, and respondents in large public university told that committee had been constituted regarding harassment complaints as compared to the respondents in small public university (34 %, -1 percentage points). The respondents in the large public university have told slightly less as compared to respondents in small public university that committee constituted regarding harassment complaints. Similarly, respondents in large public-private (28 %) and large private university (21%) told that committee has constituted regarding harassment complaints in their respective universities. The substantial proportion of respondents in each university has told that committee has not constituted regarding harassment complaints in their

university. So the hypothesis is not supported that small and large public universities have a higher level of constituted committees of Harassment Act compared to large public-private and private universities.

The small proportion of respondents, who have told that committee had been constituted, were contacted again regarding the nature of the committee and on verification, it came to the knowledge of the researcher that some of the respondents have misunderstood the question in the questionnaire (although the question in questionnaire clearly stated SH committee), actually respondents were referring to the departmental disciplinary committee, which usually deals with the complaints of students regarding any disciplinary matter within the department, usually they do not deal with the complaints of faculty. However, the respondents who have earlier told that committee was constituted were also unaware of any such committee, where they could contact regarding the harassment complaints, and they also did not know if anyone of their colleagues was assigned the duty of Harassment monitoring Officer (HMO) from concerned department/institute/school.

4.11 Multiple Reasons of Underrepresentation: Respondent's Perceptual Impediments

Along with above-stated reasons and barriers for women to access the higher hierarchical positions in universities some multiple reasons of women's underrepresentation were explored. The literature has also highlighted the diverse reasons of underrepresentation of women in academia.

The literature suggested that there could be multiple reasons for women's low progress at workplace like lack of family-friendly workplace policies, various discriminatory practices (sexual, ethnic, racial, religious discrimination or harassment), gender-based stereotypes; differences in communication styles, exclusion from informal networks, limited management support for work/life programs, lack of mentors and role-models, occupational sex segregation, and attitudinal and organizational biases could also be attributed to underrepresentation of women in academia (Acker, 2009; Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013; Croson & Gneezy, 2009; Riccucci, 2009; Vinkenburg et al., 2011).

So, based on cited literature, a list of multiple reasons of women's underrepresentation was developed and presented to the respondents, and they identified the multiple reasons as per their fundamental perceptions.

Table 32 Table Reasons of Underrepresentation at Higher Hierarchical Position

| Multiple reasons for underrepresentation | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Total |
|---|---------------|---------------|---------------|-------------|
| Family and parenting responsibilities | 109 26.5 % | 61 14.8 % | 241 58.6 % | 411 100% |
| Women's selection of sticky floor occupation | 133 32.4 % | 92 22.4 % | 186 45.3 % | 411 100% |
| Patriarchal society | 126 30.6 % | 71 17.3 % | 214 52.0 % | 411 100% |
| Male to be appointed as head | 161 39.2 % | 64 15.6 % | 186 45.2 % | 411 100% |
| Women not likeable as head | 181 44.1 % | 106 25.8 % | 124 30.2 % | 411 100% |
| Women do not fit as (masculine) leader | 202 49.1 % | 114 27.7 % | 95 23.1 % | 411 100% |
| Women's lack of interest in Professional growth | 234 56.9 % | 55 13.4 % | 122 29.7 % | 411 100% |
| Women lack leadership qualities | 224 54.5 % | 113 27.5 % | 74 18.0 % | 411 100% |
| Women lack decision making power | 216 52.6 % | 112 27.3 % | 83 20.2 % | 411 100% |

A checklist of multiple reasons of women's underrepresentation in academia was given to the respondents to choose exhaustive reasons. In response, 59 percent respondents agreed that family and parenting responsibilities could hinder the women. However 27 percent disagreed with it, rest of the respondents opted to be neutral, or they did not have given an opinion for this reason. Simultaneously, 45 percent respondents agreed that selection of career paths and career itself is significant to access position of power, and they endorsed that sticky floor occupation (the job- position in which employees usually remain stuck at the lowest levels) could be the possible reason of women's underrepresentation. However, 32 percent of respondents opted to disagree.

At the same time, 52 percent respondents agreed that patriarchal society and patriarchal mindset and hegemonic masculinities could be a hindrance for women in academia. However, 31 percent tend to disagree. Simultaneously, 45 percent respondents agreed that universities prefer to appoint the male heads instead of appointing women heads; however, 39 percent respondents disagreed with the phenomena. At the same time 30 percent respondents perceived that women are not likeable (leadership style, capabilities) to be the head; however, 44 percent of the respondents disagreed. At the same time, 23 percent respondents agreed that women do not fit the image of a masculine leader. However, 49 percent of the respondents disagreed.

As far as women's competencies, skills and capabilities are concerned, the following reasons were asked, and 30 percent of the respondents agreed that women's lack of interest in professional growth translated into their underrepresentation, however, 57 percent respondents disagreed. At the same time, 18 percent respondents agreed that women lack the leadership qualities which are a prerequisite to access the higher positions; however, 55 percent of the respondents disagreed. Finally, 20 percent respondents agreed that women lack decision making power, which is mandatory to implement the decisions and policies. However, 53 percent disagreed.

To further understand which multiple reasons could have an immense impact on the underrepresentation of women the reason mentioned above was analysed in factor analysis.

The Factor analysis of above mentioned multiple reasons was done. Factor Analysis for the reasons of underrepresentation of women at academic excellence (AE) and position of power (PP) and Correlation Matrix can be seen in Table 1, Table 2 in Appendix A.

The Table 3 (Appendix A), showed there are three factors which have Eigenvalue more than 1 and these three factors are explaining the total 47.419 % variance

The analysis produces the rotated component Matrix (Table 4 Rotated Component Matrix^a) of each of 3 factors; the factor loadings describe the interaction of variables with each identified factor. These interactions provide extensive insight into pressing issues in the dataset.

4.11.1 Lack of Adequate Competencies (Personal Barriers)

The first factor indicated the women lack the leadership qualities. It also stated that women are not suitable to the image of masculine leaders, while a supervisor needs a strong decision-making power to implement/ change various policies, which is lacking in most women. Without such powers, women may be competent but not likeable as head or organisational representatives. Similarly, the women at workplace feel their ideas are ignored, or mistakenly discredited to one of their male co-workers (Berger, Fisek & Conner, 1974; Siddiqui 2005, Siddiqui et al., 2003). These findings are endorsing the theoretical explanation of Expectations States theory (Berger, Fisek & Conner, 1974), which stated that the societies set the standards of behaviours for individuals that certain traits are typically associated with men. Traits like competence and authority are typically affiliated with those of higher status, and because cultural and stereotypical beliefs have led us to associate these, with men, there is a correlation between gender and higher positioning within organisations. These cultural stereotypes are communicated to men and women from early childhood and become embedded in their behaviours. It is this socialisation that moulds the ideas and minds of children, hinting at whom they should be and what roles they should take on as they evolve into adulthood. So, the women themselves suggested that women lack the qualities, which are essential to be the head or to be on the influential post.

The findings also supported the notion that women are seen as compassionate and nurturing; women continue to assume these roles by pursuing careers which have lower paying salaries or lower status or weak positions at workplaces. The studies by Bombuwela & De Alwis (2013) and Eagly & Carli (2007) have found if women's behaviour seems too assertive and masculine at work, they may be seen as competent but not likeable; if their behaviour is too feminine, they may be seen as likeable but incompetent (Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013; Eagly & Carli, 2007).

4.11.2 Patriarchal Practices (Societal Barriers)

The finding of the second factor indicated that women's lower hierarchical positions in universities could be due to the selection of "sticky-floor" occupation; consequently, the low proportion of women on top hierarchy could also be attributed to women's least interest

in professional growth. It also found that patriarchal setup could intricate into women's lower hierarchical positions, regardless of women's qualification and education; organisations prefer to appoint male heads.

This factor indicated that women might have picked or forced to choose occupations, which might have limited chances of growth. The society might prioritise certain professions as more safe and desirable for women who have limited opportunities to climb the hierarchical ladder. As Kilgour (2012) and Guerrero et al. (2011) have also found that women are encouraged to work in departments that have fewer developmental opportunities (Assistants, secretaries, and health workers) or do not translate to executive advancement (Guerrero et al., 2011; Kilgour, 2012).

The findings are endorsing the patriarchal practices and overwhelming male domination of society, which plays a role in the formation of ideologies. According to sociological theories, patriarchy is a result of social and cultural conditioning, passed on from generation to generation. Because of this hierarchical system, it can be overwhelmingly seen that it is the men who benefit from decisions made. Women must prove themselves, as able and competent individuals, Pakistan is a patriarchal society, where the male is the head of the family and is responsible for taking or approving all the decisions about the women of his family like education, selection of educational subjects, fields of occupation, and mate selection. Although, gender segregated teaching deemed one of the widely approved occupations for women since long in Pakistan, recently despite co-educational higher institutions and male colleague's presence women still prefer coming to academis, however, due to social and cultural practices women are encouraged to work for limited sustainability, instead of being enthusiastic and pursuing the higher career aims. As a result, they may not take part in broader networking forums, work extensively and stay longer at work; these working practices could be ultimately attributed to women's least interest in professional commitments.

4.11.3 Harassment Prevalence (Organizational Barriers)

A third factor highlighted women working in lower hierarchical positions could be more frequent targets of sexual harassment; further explained the underrepresentation of

women at higher hierarchical levels could be the result of sexual harassment. These trends have also been discussed by various researchers in Europe, as two third of the harassment complaints alleged that their harasser was in a superior position to them (AHRC, 2008). Some 15 years ago Bose and Whaley (2001) found that women with lower organisational powers were at enhanced risk of exploitation (Bose and Whaley, 2001). However, this belief was prevalent till recently, jobs characterised by low status, low organisational power and short career ladders could enhance the risk of traditional model (Supervisor-Subordinate) of harassment at the workplace (Haarr & Morash, 2013). Also, women in lower-status positions are more likely to be supervised or managed by men than by women who increase the risk of sexual harassment (Bell, McLaughlin & Sequeira, 2002; Haarr & Morash, 2013; Jonnergård, Stafssudd, & Elg, 2010).

4.12 Respondent's Suggestion to Access Higher Hierarchical Positions

The respondents have given the following suggestions, which could be helpful to access the higher hierarchical positions.

Table 33 Respondent's Suggestion to Improve Women's Status in Universities

| Factors | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| Specialized education | 113 | 27.5 |
| Advanced training/ Work Experience | 131 | 31.9 |
| Proper networking | 44 | 10.7 |
| Long working hours | 48 | 11.7 |
| Advance training/Proper networking | 35 | 8.5 |
| Specialized education/Advance training/Variety of Work Experience | 40 | 9.7 |
| Total | 411 | 100.0 |

The respondents asked to point the factors, which they think were necessary for getting a promotion in the university. In response, 28 percent of respondents stated it is imperative to have an advanced and specialised education. At the same time, 32 percent said

particular working span or requisite years of work experience are necessary to be promoted from one rank to another. On the other hand, 11 percent of the respondents expressed proper networking in the workplace is needed; opportunities and promotions are influenced by strong networking and good rapport with colleagues and seniors. Otherwise, it is hard to get benefits like the social capital of Bourdieu (1986). However, 12 percent of the respondents thought; long hours and intensive working culture are becoming more popular in universities. By investing additional time, one can get more benefits. Few respondents 9 percent suggested multiple factors instead of one, could play a significant role in promotions like advanced training (familiarity with the latest technology, ideas, and trends in their respective field). The proper networking is important to get the promotion as Bourdieu suggested that academia is a profession where positions and promotions are not earned but achieved by networking (Bourdieu, 1986). However, 10 percent of the respondents said that specialised education, Advance training and a variety of work experience could play a crucial role in getting higher positions or success.

The trends could be corresponding with private jobs, where long working hours and greater availability outside the regular working hours are norms of the successful worker. Recently academics have similar requirements to enjoy the success of the profession. As undocumented obligation senior academics required to be involved in university administration and other responsibilities such as engaging in committees, seeking to fund or performing editorial activities. These responsibilities are widely voluntary but in the long run could benefit the respondents (Bosquet; Combes, & Garc'ia-Peñalosa, 2014). As we see that for women academics it might be challenging to engage outside of their regular working hours (Polkowska, 2014; Raburu, 2015) which could result in lower hierarchical academic positions.

4.13 Summary of the Findings

The current study has been conducted in four different universities of Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan and 49 percent, 8 percent, 22 percent, 21 percent respondents were selected randomly from the large public, small public, large public-private and large private university consecutively.

The majority of the respondents, 91 percent were from academic departments. Several faculties were included in the sample. The significant majority 73 percent were working on a regular basis (Tenured).

The substantial numbers of respondents (45 %) had Master of Philosophy/Masters of Science (M.Phil. /MS. 18 Years of Education) Degree. Simultaneously, 34 percent of the respondents had Master Degrees (Sixteen Years of Education). However, only 15 percent of respondents have done Doctorates. As the majority of the respondents (80 %) were less than 35 years of their age, simultaneously, the significant proportion of respondents was having up to ten years of service at the time of data collection so that they may improve academic qualifications.

As far as the marital status of the respondents was concerned, 61 percent respondents were married, and 40 percent of the married respondents did not have a child. At the same time, 68 percent of the respondents were living either in joint or extended families.

One-third majority 76 percent of the respondents were working eight hours in a day. On the other hand, 13 percent of the respondents were working even longer. It found 44 percent of the respondents did not have any support at home; they were responsible for handling all domestic chores. However, rest of the respondents had support in the form of maids, family members and daycare facility.

About 35 percent of the respondents preferred taking short leaves to adjust domestic needs. At the same time, 40 percent of the participant also said if it is inevitable they will avail short leave option.

Simultaneously, 33 percent of the respondents could not continue work after prescribed time. However, 41 percent of the respondents believed, staying longer in the university be contingent on nature of the task at work and commitments at home. Concurrently, substantial proportion 40 percent of the respondents did not prefer to work at home due to family responsibilities. Instead, 34 percent of the respondents could work in a home subject to task in an academic year.

Travels for conferences, workshops and symposium attendance are significant in academia, and 42 percent, 36 percent of the respondents were willing to travel nationally and internationally consecutively. However, 37 percent and 29 percent of the respondents stated they would prefer to travel nationally and internationally if opportunities are given, and

someone could take care of kids and family because their children were young. Nevertheless, 22 percent of the respondents were reluctant to travel.

The findings of the current survey showed that significant majority 51 percent of the respondents were working as Lecturer. The Lecturer is lowest academic hierarchical level in universities in Pakistan.

As far as publications of respondents in scientifically acclaimed sources were concerned, a significant majority 49 percent of the respondents did not have any publication at all. However, the rest of 210 (51 %) respondents, who had publications, have filled the details of publications. In response, 32 percent, 42 percent of the respondents did not have any publication in international and national accredited Journals consecutively. Whereas, 22 percent and 20 percent of the respondents, have only one publication in international and national accredited Journals respectively. Simultaneously 47 percent did not have any publications in scientific Journals without impact factors. At the same time, 94 percent have not published any book, and 81 percent of the respondents did not write any chapter in a book.

Teaching workload figures showed only 67 percent and 21 percent Lecturer were teaching three and four courses per semester consecutively and 54 percent Assistant Professors were teaching three courses per semester. Thus the Lecturer and Assistant Professor respondents were teaching more courses per semester as compared to Associate Professor and Professor.

It is found that all three variable education, job experience and publications are significant to access higher hierarchical positions. One needs to improve all three factors to attain or get promotions to higher hierarchical positions.

It was found that large family size and assistance for domestic work has a positive effect on the professional productivity of the respondents, more the children more will be the publications. However, type of family structure did not influence the publications. However, support or assistance with domestic work could enhance the professional productivity of the respondents.

As far as organisational barriers were concerned teaching workload, participation in conference and thesis supervisions were significant for higher productivity. The respondents who have experienced sexual harassment have also published more. It seems that highly

productive respondents with 5 or more publications have experienced sexual harassment more often than respondents with no publications or only a few publications. This endorsed the assumption that harassment used as an "equaliser" against women in power, as sexual harassment is less about sexual desire than about control and domination.

As far as societal barriers were concerned, sexual harassment was widely prevalent in all hierarchical level; however it varied from university to university, it is less prevalent in small public university compared to large public, large public-private and large private universities. It can be assumed that anonymity and extensive administrative mechanism in large universities could trigger the sexual harassment experiences.

As sexual harassment is widely experienced by respondents working on the various hierarchical level in various universities. So the implementation of Harassment Act (2010) is undeniably crucial in universities so that the women can work without fear, intimidation and hostile working environment.

So the awareness level of respondents working on various hierarchical levels in various universities was measure, It seems that Professors more knowledgeable compared to Assistant Professors, Associate Professors and Lecturers.

As far as the awareness of respondents in various universities was concerned it also varied respondents in large universities were more knowledgeable compared to respondents in small public university.

It was assumed that public universities have implemented the Act more frequently compare to private universities. However, universities did not vary in the implementation of Harassment Act. As the majority of respondents in each university told Act has not been implemented in their university.

Although the significant majority of the study told that harassment Act was not implemented, however, the clauses of harassment Act have given some plan of action for public and private universities for implementation. So, further inquiry was made, if some other requirements were met, nonetheless, a significant majority in each university told that Act was not displayed in their respective university.

Simultaneously, none of the participants in small public university told their department/institute has organised the seminar to create the awareness of the Harassment Act. However, few respondents in large public university told that seminar was organised.

Finally, universities have not constituted the committee to deal with the complaints of harassment.

Simultaneously, the multiple reasons of underrepresentation of women were analysed, and it was found the women lack the leadership qualities, decision -making powers, which a boss needs to implement/ change various policies. It was also found women do not fit the image of masculine leaders, due to these reasons; women may not be preferred for promotion and appointments as organisational representativeness.

The second factor highlighted women's underrepresentation could be the result of a career path with low progress prospects. Concurrently, despite choosing a career with lower progress prospects, women's least interest in professional growth could result in a lower proportion of higher hierarchical positions. It was found that due to the patriarchal controls women might encourage to choose behavioural patterns which had lower employment progress (e.g. excluded or discouraged to be the part of informal networks).

The third factor emphasised women working in lower hierarchical positions could be more frequent targets of sexual harassment as male members supervised them. The discriminatory practices could hinder to climb higher hierarchical positions (Avin et al., 2015; Hannum et al., 2015; Peterson, 2015).

4.14 Conclusion and Theoretical Implications

4.14.1 Gender Role Expectation

The advanced education, extensive job experience and rigorous scientific publications are pre-requisites to access higher hierarchical positions in universities. Although improvement in one credential and ignoring the other might not translate into same outcomes, however despite acquiring appointment in academia, improving the education credentials and having adequate years of job experience, one needs to concentrate meticulously on scientific productivity to further climb the hierarchical ladder, towards the senior Professorial ranks. The scientific literature regarding the impediments for women working on lower hierarchical positions highlighted on the way to climb senior academic posts globally, women academics might experience the diverse challenges, which could make it even harder for them to pass

through visible and invisible barriers and reaching the highest extreme of the ladder. In the current study, a substantial number of respondents was working on lower hierarchical positions in universities, and various personal, organisational and societal barriers were measured, which could intervene the scientific productivity of the respondents, and eventually would subsidise to the denied access to senior positions in the long run.

As far as the personal barriers related to the family responsibilities of the respondents were concerned, it was found that family structure might not have a significant regressive influence on the publication productivity. However, the assistance for domestic work and share of domestic responsibilities could enhance the productivity of the respondents who had assistance at home was highly productive. Whereas the age of respondents was another important barrier, in the young age respondents were least productive (publications), however the older respondents were more productive, as after the kids growing year, marital, maternity and extensive family responsibilities they might concentrate further to improve their scientific productivity, but the enhanced productivity in the later years academic career might not be as rewarding, somehow by the time respondents would be able to fulfil the prerequisite criteria to access higher Professorial ranks, approaching retirement age (60 years of age) could be another hurdle on the way. As the most prominent justification for “vertical occupational segregation” lies in perceived roles. These stereotypes lead men and women to perform their perceived roles in “respective” fields. Vastly women are perceived as compassionate and nurturing; women assume to perform these roles. These stem from cultural stereotypes of attributes and roles each gender is presumed to occupy relative to the other. These cultural stereotypes are communicated to men and women from early childhood and become embedded in their behaviours. It is this socialisation that moulds the ideas and minds of children, hinting at whom they should be and what roles they should take on as they evolve into adulthood. The Expectation States Theory explains the situations where actors are oriented toward the accomplishment of a collective goal or task (Correll & Ridgeway, 2006). Consistently, in Pakistani cultural perspective majority of women’s role are culturally perceived to be solely responsible for managing and dealing with domestic chores and kids nourishment. Usually, men due to cultural barriers and perceived gendered roles might not assist women in cleaning, cooking and washing. So assistance for domestic work could improve the performance of working women on the professional front.

4.14.2 Social Capital and Hegemonic Masculinities

After dealing with personal impediments, the respondents would land into the universities, where another series of barriers could contribute to repudiating access to most senior academic ranks. The teaching workload would be an important consideration in this regards; It was found that higher teaching workload has a negative impact on the publication productivity; respondents with higher teaching workload were most often least or non-productive. These findings were consistent with other studies, which stated that the extensive teaching workload leads to low research productivity, which eventually leads to the low proportion of women in academic excellence and positions of power. As for promotions in universities, higher teaching workloads are massively ignored, and research productivity earned huge attention (Fridner et al., 2015; Schlegelmilch & Diamantopoulos, 2015).

Simultaneously, some researchers who were working on the progress and impediments which women academic could experience in academia have highlighted that the workload distribution in the university needs a significant consideration. The exclusion of women from career development opportunities, prejudice about women's academic abilities and intellectual authority, poor equality policy implementation and backlash to affirmative action could seriously impede the women's career success (Morley, 2006). So as far as the inclusion of respondents in broader networking forum were concerned, it was also found that majority of the respondents have not participated in the academic conferences abroad and within the country. The participation in broader networking forum could build the social capital of the respondents and enhances one's ability to advance in the competition between individuals. As Bourdieu (1986) have suggested that group members enjoy certain privileges they have not necessarily earned. This point is important because it proposes the existence of a non-meritocratic academic reality, where promotion is a function of social networking rather than of one's merit. Hence, advantageous relationships can secure material or symbolic 'profit', which establishes a concrete base for the growth (Bourdieu, 1986: 249). However, it also crucially important that inclusion in broader networking opportunities would also enhance the expertise of the individuals and improved expertise would help to attain the required goals more efficiently. It was also found that respondents who have supervised the BS.(Hons.) and master thesis in last five years was productive more often as compared to the

respondents who have not surprised the thesis. The higher opportunities for thesis supervision would help to enhance the social capital and expertise of the respondents.

Another impediment women have experienced at work has been highlighted as sexual harassment. The researchers have continuously highlighted that women perusing the authority positions could be the frequent targets of sexual harassment of women at the workplaces (Lim & Lee, 2011; Okechukwu et al., 2014; Popovich & Warren, 2010). It was found in this study, although the high productivity behaviours of respondents were not statistically significant. However, the highly productive respondents have experienced harassment more often as compared to the least or non-productive respondents in all age groups. It was evident that highly productive respondents with five or more publications have experienced sexual harassment more often than respondents without or only with few publications. These findings are suggesting that respondents who pose a threat and working to acquire excellence in their work are more frequent targets of harassment. These findings endorse the idea that once women have successfully found their way into the workforce and landed in a position in their desired organisation, other types of discrimination become apparent. As harassment used as an "equaliser" against women in power, research consistently showing, that sexual harassment is less about sexual desire than about control and domination (McLaughlin, Uggen, & Blackstone, 2009). According to MacKinnon's proposition, harassment results from women's oppression and subordinate position to men. According to the "vulnerable victim" hypothesis, more vulnerable workers will be subject to higher harassment experience (Berdahl, 2007), as the majority of the study respondents were working on lower hierarchies, they were relatively young and could be enthusiastic to excel, and harassment could be used to suppress their voice. The statistics from International Labour Organization (ILO), (2013) suggests that glass ceiling does exist both in developed and developing world, while in developing countries, it is close to lower organisational levels.

4.14.3 Patriarchy

The sexual harassment at workplace in Pakistani society is a reoccurring problem. Several studies have highlighted that magnanimous majority of women have been harassed at work and on their way to work in Pakistan (Baber, 2007; HRCP, 2000; Sarwar & Nauman, 2011; Weiss, 2012; Yousaf, 2011; Yousaf & Mahmood, 2012). The patriarchal ideologies might have favoured the men, and overwhelming undermines the potentials of women

(Taylor-Abdulai et al., 2014). In this study, it was found that sexual harassment was widely prevalent in various universities and respondents working on various hierarchical levels have experienced it in their entire working life.

It was found that 88 percent respondents have been harassed in the university premises, on the way and back from the university. Although, all the respondents working at various hierarchical levels have experienced harassment, however, the Professors and Assistant Professors have experienced harassment more often as compared to the lecturer and below hierarchical level and Associate Professors respondents. It seemed hard to find the similarity and differences between the sexual harassment experience of various respondents as Professors were relatively older respondents and Assistant Professors were relatively young respondents, both have higher sexual harassment encounters. Simultaneously, Lecturer and below respondents relatively young and Associate Professors relatively older have relatively low sexual harassment encounter. In such circumstances, the productivity of the respondents was crucial to measure, and it was found the highly productive respondents among all age groups have higher sexual harassment experiences as compared to least or non-productive respondents.

There is another important consideration when assessing the prevalence of sexual harassment experiences it is crucially important to consider the fact that the question in the questionnaire used a lifetime working experience reference period. Accordingly, the sexual harassment experience reported by respondents does not necessarily imply that these incidences occurred recently. Thus, it is likely that young respondents may have experienced fewer instances of sexual harassment. Whereas regarding productivity and hierarchical positions of the respondents the combination of senior and junior (high, low sexual harassment encounter), is interesting to notice, and highly productive respondents in each age category have experienced higher sexual harassment encounters.

As far as the sexual harassment experience in large public, large public-private, largely private, and small private universities were concerned, the respondents working in small public university experienced less harassment compared to the respondents in large public, public-private and private universities. The large universities had a large infrastructure, and there was more anonymity, and respondents were more often having several years of experience. The respondents in large universities might be working more

often to improve the academic credentials to access the higher hierarchical position, whereas, in small public university the respondents were within their probation period of employment (in permanent post, at the beginning of job usually employees complete 2 years of probation before getting the confirmation), and they could be less likely talking about sexual harassment experience on the campus to avoid any conspiracy and secondly they were more often struggling to adjust to the job challenges, they might not have started working to improve the credentials.

As it is found in the current study that vast majority of respondents 88 percent working in four different type of universities have experienced sexual harassment within the universities and on the way and back from work. Under such circumstance, it can be assumed that effective formal control and implementation of The Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace Act (2010) in universities is crucially important as unsafe and intimidating environment could inhibit the respondent's potentials.

The Government of Pakistan and HEC already made it mandatory for public and private universities to implement the harassment Act (2010) to avoid gender discrimination and hostile working environment for working women. However, the magnanimous majority of survey respondents were unaware of the Harassment Act, and its implementation in their concerned department/institute/schools, it seemed, it was less likely that universities have implemented the Act. However, in in-depth interviews with heads (chapter 5), it can be further explored if the heads of department/institutes/schools have implemented it. Recently women came more frequently into paid workforce in Pakistan and aspiring to excel. The majority of Pakistan's female population may not afford to be unemployed as they came to employment after a long struggle. They may face inequality, discrimination, and sexual harassment as a part of the job (Pakistan Employment Trends, 2011), in such scenarios, effective implementation of harassment Act is inevitable.

5. QUALITATIVE RESULTS

5.1 Semi Structured Interviews with Head of Departments

In the first phase of research (Survey), the data has collected from four different types of universities; the universities vary regarding their operations (public and private) and structure (small and large). In the second phase, the criteria of universe inclusion remained same for the semi-structured interviews except for the participants, i.e. head of departments or deans.

There were three primary types of variation in semi-structured interviews:-

1. Heads: Hierarchical position, Head of Departments, Head of Institute, Director or Dean.
2. University type (Public, Private, Public- Private).
3. University size (Small, Large, Medium)

The main purpose of semi-structured interviews with the head of departments, directors and deans of institutes working in public, private and public- private universities was to explore if the Workplace Act was implemented in universities. In 2010 the Government of Pakistan had passed protection against harassment of women in the Workplace Act, (2010) and Higher Education of Commission (HEC) made it mandatory for Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) to implement it. The head of the departments, directors and deans of the Institute were directly responsible for the implementation of the Act in HEIs. According to HEC (2011), “policy guidelines against sexual harassment in institutes of higher education” heads of departments and institutes are responsible for organising seminars, constituting the inquiry committee and displaying the Act in the entrances of their departments. Before interviewing the head of the department, in the first phase of data collection (survey) the respondents (Lecturer and below hierarchical level respondents-Professors) were surveyed to get an insight if the Act was implemented in their respective department/institute/school (by asking that how often they have attended seminars regarding Harassment Act and its implementation, and if they know or have contacted the harassment monitoring committee to

register harassment complaints, and have seen the Act displayed in their institute). In the second phase of the study the heads were interviewed, so that their claims can be cross-checked and verified by women employed in their departments/institutes/schools.

At the same time, the interviews have explored the reason and barriers which women academics may have experienced in accessing the position of power and excellence.

Before beginning the interviews, the study intended to record expectations for following findings:

1. The reason of women underrepresentation in academic excellence positions of power.
2. What barriers women face in their respective universities
3. How can the situation be improved?
4. To what extent Harassment Act (2010) has been implemented in four different types of universities?

5.2 Background Information of Participants

| Sr. No. | Interviewees Department | Gender | | Experience | Education | Pseudo Name | Type of University |
|---------|-------------------------|--------|------|------------|-----------|-------------|--------------------|
| | | Female | Male | | | | |
| 1 | Library | | M | 16 | PhD | Dr Atif | Public-Private |
| 2 | Economics | F | | 20 | PhD | Dr Ayesha | Public |
| 3 | Botany | | M | 27 | PhD | Dr Ali | Public |
| 4 | Mathematics | F | | 14 | PhD | Dr Ruhi | Public |
| 5 | Islamic Studies | F | | 15 | M.Phil | Ms Aliya | Public |
| 6 | International relation | | M | 14 | M.S | Mr.Umer | Public |
| 7 | Sociology | F | | 15 | PhD | Dr Samina | Public-Private |
| 8 | Physics | F | | 27 | PhD | Dr Anum | Public |
| 9 | Philosophy | | M | 27 | PhD | Dr .Asif | Public-Private |
| 10 | Zoology | | M | 10 | PhD | Dr Nasir | Public |

| | | | | | | |
|----|----------------|---|----|---------|------------|---------|
| | | | | | | Private |
| 11 | Commerce | M | 10 | PhD | Dr Sultan | Public |
| | | | | | | Private |
| 12 | Social work | F | 7 | M.Phil. | Dr Atiya | Private |
| 13 | Law | M | 30 | LLM | Dr Shahid | Private |
| 14 | Gender Studies | M | 6 | M.Phil. | Dr. Arshad | Public |
| | | | | | | Small |

5.3 Lower Hierarchical Positions of Women: Reasons

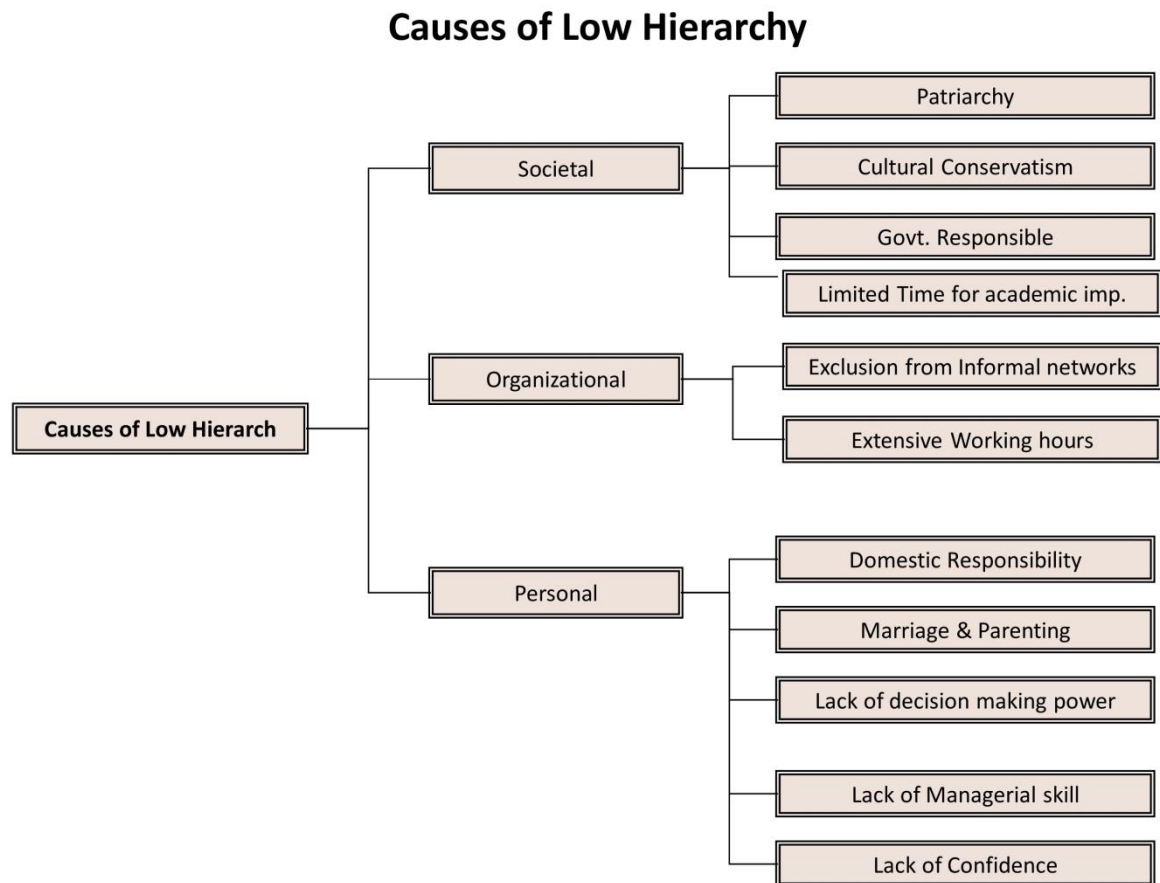
Some of the reasons of underrepresentation of women in academic excellence and positions of power described below:-

| Reason | Definition | Example |
|----------------------------------|--|---|
| Patriarchy | Historically, patriarchy was used to refer to the autocratic ruling of a family by the father. However, it has evolved into identifying the social systems where adult men hold power (Meagher, 2011). | Culture has given superiority to male, which starts with preferential treatment from home in the beginning (Library, head) |
| Social conservatism | A social conservative wants to preserve traditional morality and social mores, often through civil law or regulation. Social change is regarded as suspect (Seaten, 1996). | Historically women were not allowed to be educated if allowed higher education was occasional. The parents preferred marrying girl over a career (Head, Sociology). |
| Domestic responsibilities | Family labour that occurs | Working women have to |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | within families/households, it also has inter-household, inter-institutional and community dimensions (Doucet, 2006). | cook, clean, serve husband, look after in-laws and on top of that pick and drop the kids at daycare or school (Physics, Head) |
| Marriage and Parenting | A relationship established between a woman and man, which provides that a child born to the woman under the circumstances not prohibited by the rules of the relationship (Bell, 1997). | Women have to look after young kids, which are a full-time job; they cannot concentrate fully on profession (Head, Sociology, Physics, Economics International Relations,). |
| Responsibility of Government/State | | The Government is responsible for the lower progress of women and discrimination goes unchecked; There are many inequalities in the job (Head, Islamic studies). |
| Exclusion from informal networks | They are not officially recognised or mandated by organisations and in that the content of their exchanges can be work-related, personal, or social (Ibarra, 1993). | Male colleagues have informal networks from top to bottom, they got crucial information in advance, and women do not have such opportunity (Head, Sociology). |
| Long working hours | Eight hours a day for five days in a week is prescribed time in most of the | Research and publication need time investment. Nowadays one has to work |

| | | |
|--|---|--|
| | universities. | for long hours like (8:30 to 4:30 is a routine), whereas, a male can stay till 20:00 or 21:00h, women cannot (Head, International Relations). |
| Lack of decision-making Power and managerial skills | Decision making is a process of making a choice from some alternatives to achieve the desired result (Eisenfuhr, 2011). | Women cannot carry out the right decisions at the right time (Botany, Head). |
| Lack of confidence | There may be an element of doubt in one, what he/she believe, i.e. uncertainty or lack of confidence (Wesson, 2005) | There are some confidence problems too, despite being hard working and high achiever, she tends to evaluate herself lower than male (Head, Sociology, Mathematics, International relations). |
| Less time to improve the Qualification | | A woman has to wait until the kids are grown up. By the time she would be late to be in competition (Head, Economics). |
| Women are not underrepresented | | Considering Pakistan's employment situation for women, A Lecturer is not a lower hierarchal level (Head, Social Work). |

Figure 9: Lower Hierarchical Positions of Women in Academia: Reasons



5.3.1 Patriarchy

The overwhelming male domination of society plays a role in shaping political ideology, in which the views of those in power make all decisions and set priorities on behalf of all the citizens, overwhelmingly, serving the needs of the men. It is the male portion of society that benefits by continuing these practices and lack of equality between men and women (Taylor-Abdulai et al. 2014). In Pakistan's stereotypical cultural practices boys started getting preferential treatment right from the beginning. Even mothers discriminate between sons and daughter; they try to give the best food to the boys and leftovers to the girls. If both brother and sister come back from the school at the same time, mothers often, ask the daughter to

serve a glass of water to brother. Subsequently, boys are starting getting superior treatments. Head Librarian at a public-private university said:-

“I instructed my wife to deal equally between son and daughter”.

Another woman head has summed up “in my department, mainly males are working; I often get the impression that they do not appreciate a woman to be their head. Traditionally they used to instruct women, whereas here a woman has to command them”.

Recently, most educated parents are not considerably discriminating between boys and girls upbringing. Parents are sending boys and girls to the same school, and both of them are enjoying the similar luxuries, while previous generations allegedly have given some preferential treatments to the boys.

A woman head has narrated:-

Mostly, male used to get preferential treatment at home and in society in general, for them, it is difficult to digest or accept a woman as a head in the workplace. Most of the men contemplate at work that women are less talented, less competent and they could not take decisions independently. They are socialised seeing women commanded and controlled by men.

Although 51percent of Pakistan’s population consists of women, they have been playing their roles in every sphere of life for a long time; still, they were experiencing discriminatory treatments in society (Khan, & Ahmed, 2013).

5.3.2 Cultural Conservatism

Several participants of the study shared that the conservatism of the society has contributed towards the discriminatory treatment of women in the workplace. While in the past, the education of girls was not a priority, dreaming of attaining secondary or higher education were restricted.

Almost all the participants endorsed, traditionally few women who got a chance to get a higher education; even their parents prefer to marry them early because, with growing age, it tended to be difficult to find a suitable match. Due to such cultural practices, primarily, most of the women were not entered into the job market. Therefore, in the absence of women

in the job market, women's employment status or underrepresentation at the higher hierarchical position was absent in a debate.

A male head of Mathematics Department said:-

Trends are changing in Pakistan since 2007; women are not only gaining Master degrees rather vast majority is pursuing PhDs. Still today several women are working in top positions, but in future, women would be far better than male. He further added "in my Master's class, girls had distinctions, and they were brilliant. However, I was mediocre, whereas girls got married and did not join the job market. Concurrently, I had no choice but to grab a job and I ended up with the head of the Department tag". He further told that, but I do not see this situation would prevail in next 10 to 20 years.

On the contrary, the male head of IT Department told in modern times, the job market is very competitive, and one has to stay longer and work extensively, which is hard for women. Considering Pakistan, society does not appreciate or approve women to work till twilight, as people are not accustomed to seeing women working in the education sector until late evenings. However, even if women do not bother with society's approval and if she has travelled back on public transport in the evening, travel is going to be a huge challenge. Meanwhile, public transport is not very safe for women, especially when they travel consistently on the same route for specific timing.

Another female head specified many societal pressures on women:-

If a woman wishes to enter the labour market after to complete her education, she needs to consider many propounding issues. First, she is required to seek permission from a chain of commands like parents, brothers, and uncles in the extended family. However married women should consult husband and then in-laws. She further stressed, a woman who got the medical degree, if her husband or in-laws put restrictions to work, she only has one option to choose either job or husband. Most of them opted for the later.

Another male head narrated:-

One of our colleagues and his wife had Doctoral Degrees. They were teaching in our university, but husband's father was sick, and he needed someone for nursing him.

Eventually, woman had to quit the job to nurse her father-in-law. Our Dean tried to convince her of taking back her decision, but she wanted to save her marriage not the job.

5.3.3 Domestic Responsibilities

In the current scenario, we can assume the women's huge family responsibilities could be affecting their work performance. According to Pakistani cultural context, women's prime responsibility is a family, not a job, so they may not give proper time to their jobs (Female head).

Another female head articulated: - Women somehow always looking back; they are in a hurry to go back to home. Working women are so occupied with their domestic responsibilities that they have less time to concentrate on their job.

Similarly, another female head believed:-

The women have to do multiple tasks at a time. She has to cook the food, serve the entire family and wash the dishes, she has to pander the husband (Havand ke nakhry bhi uthy ge), and at the same time, she has to look after in-laws as they do not cooperate with her often. The mother-in-law and the sister-in-law could be staying at home, but they were not cooperating or taking care of her kids, she either has to drop her kids at daycare or in many cases she could drop her young kids to her mother's home. The husband and the in-laws will be eagerly interested in getting her pay, but they are not willing to relieve her, of domestic obligations.

She further questioned researcher "would you tell me in this situation, how a woman can concentrate on work and how will she go on top positions?"

The head of the Social Science Department said, in my department:-

I saw many young and enthusiastic girls coming and working so well... a few months later, they come to me with their wedding invitation card. Once they got married, there are a series of issues, problem, and responsibilities which started hindering their work. She has to concentrate on maternity and numerous domestic matters.

She further explained that now a day's, university work is so competitive, one has to work extensively and women cannot give excessive time to their job. On the other hand, the male can stay at work as long as they want.

A male head narrated:

The majority of female workers had a responsibility to feed their families. Meanwhile many people were economically dependent on them. These women tolerate discriminatory treatments and compromise on low wages and lower authority positions. They do not work very hard to reach top positions rather they contented to get minimum monthly income in which they can support their family.

However, he further added, the situation has changed recently. The women from good families and strong economic backgrounds started coming to the job market. They do not tolerate different treatments; they are vocal and confident. Significantly they are improving their academic qualifications, and in future, they might have better prospects to be appointed at headships.

A female head of the English Department told that:-

I do not see that women are less hard working or incompetent that is why they are not progressing on the job market. Rather women's family commitments do not let them invest much time in the profession. The family is a prime responsibility for women; she has to concentrate on it. The family obligations might be restricting them to put too much energy into the job.

5.3.4 Marriage and Parenting

After the completion of the education, girl's marriage has been a prime priority for parents since long in Pakistan. Once a woman gets married, she needs some time to get settled into married life. Maternity leaves, childbearing, and parenting responsibilities are demanding and consume much time. It also causes the gap in their job that might be one of the strongest reasons for their lower progress in the job arena. Many study participants have expressed similar views on the above issue.

A female Head explained:-

Since decades, marrying a girl has been a priority of parent. As who could not get married earlier, their families and girls would be under the political scrutiny that why there is no matrimonial match for her. She is getting older (over 25 years in recent times) and still unmarried, becomes the talk of the town. So, most of the parents prefer to marry their daughters early. Those who are unable to get a timely match might have to suffer many psychological problems, and many of them may have to remain single, as male prefers to marry young girls. Once, they get married. Consequently, issues of conception and pregnancy started arising. They have less time to concentrate on the job.

Another female Head of the Social Science department said:-

After a few months of marriage, most of the women employees require leaves for medical check-ups and other pregnancy-related complications. Side by side, they have various other household responsibilities. As a result, the women by default have less time to concentrate on the job.

A Male head recounted: - My wife is highly educated, but when our kids were young, I told her to concentrate on them, Later she may join the university with me once our kids were grown up.

Another woman head said that:-

“It is a matter of pride for me if my child got A+ in his monthly test than I present a paper somewhere in a conference”. Women have to look after a young kid, which is a full-time job; they cannot concentrate fully on the profession.

5.3.5 Responsibility of Government

The Government should make a quota for female heads too, as there is a perception that women are not consistent with the job, so organisations prefer to hire male heads. There should be some policies in which married women need to be facilitated with kids. One cannot work twelve or thirteen hours in a day; somehow organisations are promoting a culture in which women cannot work, if they work, they might not be appreciated. As we all know, women have domestic responsibilities too, if the organisations and the Government are not safeguarding women's rights, they are systematically excluding women from employment (Islamic Studies Head). If there will be more women heads, they will be better understanding

the women's problems. There should be some after school care in the departments and/or in the universities, where women can leave their kids after school. Simultaneously there should be assistance available so that kids can complete homework in aftercare, and woman could better concentrate on work.

5.3.6 Exclusion from Informal Networks

The significance of informal network is growing in academia; however, it is challenging for working women to be the part of informal networks due to various reason.

A female Head narrated:-

The structure of the universities is heavily male dominated from the Gatekeeper to the Rectors; there are male members everywhere. The male heads and colleagues share a good rapport with a gatekeeper, gardener, and clerical staff and on many other important places, they work as informers. It is easy for a male to get vital information, which doesn't even come to the female as they cannot socialise with these people.

She further narrated:-

The male heads would even in advance know the schedule of the Rector, and they prepare themselves to act smartly in their presence (*jahan number banye ja saky hain, wo her us jaga mojud hon ge*). They even do not share scholarships or funding opportunity information with female colleagues.

5.3.7 Long Working Hours

Most of the universities in Pakistan have eight working hours in a day for five working days in a Week. Sometimes employees are expected to stay even longer and teach extra classes. Though they are paid for extra teachings, but for many employees, in particular for women, it might be a matter of concern. As it is hard for them to work longer than prescribed time and workload.

A male head explained:-

The universities are becoming private enterprises. There was a time when women employed in universities used to leave premises about two o'clock or 2:30 Pm. Currently,

they are expected to stay for about eight hours. However, their personal and domestic commitments do not allow them to stay any longer than prescribed working hours.

He also explained:-

For promotions, academician needs extensive research and publications, and it requires much time and effort. However, women have divided concentrate on family and work. So they might not extract much time and be more productive. The lack of extensive time might be contributing towards women's low progress.

Another female Head was of the view:-

Completion of Doctorate is not a moment of accomplishment; rather an academician requires Post-Doctoral research, publications, research supervisions to be a Professor. Most women could not manage unlimited time, effort and energy, as they have full-time responsibilities of kids and family. They are already working eight hours and somehow missing time with the household. One cannot operate for an unlimited time; at least there should be some limits for women.

5.3.8 Lack of Decision Making Power and Managerial Skills

As male Dean was of the view:-

The females are not good Managers. Despite the gender equality claims and effort Europe and America have male heads in majority institutes. If you look at the last presidential elections in America, they prefer to choose a male President (Barak Obama) from a suppressed minority over a white female of the majority.

He further narrated:-

Pakistan is much modern than so-called gender-neutral societies, as we have chosen female Prime Minister twice, but unfortunately, she could not hold the office.

Another male Head said:-

Women are unable to take timely decisions. During our administrative meetings, they look for suggestions given by male Heads, and they go with their suggestions instead of giving their input or opinions for final decisions.

He also told:-

In my university, we have various institutes, there is only one Institute, which has a female head, but that female head has been changed various times in a year whereas male heads remain intact in their offices. They cannot run their offices, sometimes due to domestic issues and occasionally due to administrative problems.

He further added:-

The headship demand responsibility, commitment strong and timely decision-making skills. The head of department/institute could not afford to avail leaves after every three months.

5.3.9 Lack of Confidence

Some of the participants thought women lack the confidence, to climb the hierarchical ladder, confidence is undeniably significant.

A female Head explained:

Many women are not very confident. They work very hard; they got good grades they could have done their assignments properly. Women work harder than male, and they even understand their task better than men. However, if you compare the confidence level of both men and women, men will be far more confident, and they would pretend that they know everything.

She further added:-

Administrative offices in universities are encumbered with men, occasionally if a woman has to visit Dean/ Rector's office; she has to pass through the staring and visual scrutiny of men. Collectively as a ritual, they will stare at her, on the realisation that everyone is noticing her, she will get conscious, and as a consequence, she ended up losing confidence.

5.3.10 Limited Time to Improve Qualification

A female Head said:-

Women cannot study throughout their lives like male colleagues; they cannot leave them alone to go abroad to get higher education or even to study within the country.

She further explained:-

I got a foreign scholarship for a PhD when my son was so young, I cannot travel with him alone, and my husband could not leave his job, so, I decided to quit the scholarship”. I completed my studies in Pakistan. However many women may not benefit such opportunity within the country. Most of the women have to wait unless kids are grown up.

She further related this dilemma to lower progress in the job market:-

If a woman waited to improve her qualifications till her kids are grown up, by the time she is preparing to improve credential, she would be out of competitions and her retirement period would already be approaching. This is a significant point to be considered as the prime reason for women low progress on the job.

5.3.11 Women not underrepresented

The participants asked according to them why women in the universities underrepresented in academic excellence and positions of power. In response to this question, A female head said:-

“I do not believe that a Lecturer is a lower hierarchical level”.

She further asked me, how many women are working in Pakistan and Lecturer is an eighteen scale in the Government sector, which is higher than those who pass the Bureaucracy competitive examination. I do not consider; Lecturers are placed in lower academic hierarchy.

5.4 Barriers for Women in Universities to Access Higher Positions

| Barriers | Definition | Example |
|---|---|--|
| Politically influenced the selection | Where merits are ignored, and non-qualifying candidates got selected. | Some political pressures might force the promotion or appointment of the non-qualifying candidate (Head, Mathematics). |
| Women Head was not preferred | | I experienced in my department that men do not |

| | | |
|---|---|--|
| | | appreciate the women to work in top positions (Head, Islamic Studies). |
| Male dominating domain | Rooted in social rather than biological, Masculine, brave and dominating (Biernat, 1991). | The university is a man's domain; they create hindrances for women (Head, Sociology). |
| Lack of Access to Information | Knowledge and information are basic ingredients of making one be self-reliant and are essential for facilitating and bringing social and economic change (Oltmann, 2009) | Male heads or male colleagues do not share relevant information with female colleagues (Head, Sociology). |
| Lack of family and kids friendly environment | A lack of balance in an employee's life, the ability to focus at work is often diminished when employees are worried about family or kids (Islam & Khan, 2015; Doherty & Manfredi, 2006). | Day-care are not well equipped, and we cannot get a place in university day care (Head, Economic). |
| Long working Hours | | We have been working, at least for eight hours in a day; it is expected to work even longer to climb hierarchal level (Women, Head). |
| Women face no barrier | | I was directly appointed as an Assistant Professor, then I did a PhD and became head because I fulfilled all |

criteria's. I do not think there is any organisational hindrance for women (Sociology, Head).

5.4.1 Politically Influenced Appointments

A female Head explained:-

Occasionally, there are politically influenced selections or promotions have witnessed in university. Due to these selections several deserving and competent candidate might be neglected.

She further narrated:-

Although, politically influenced selection credit the merits and considered selection. A candidate must hold excellent credentials fulfilling criteria; however, some missing credentials and experience would be adjusted compared to those who had a requisite qualification. The selection procedures might justify the missing criteria over certain other qualifications or experiences in politically influenced selection. Nevertheless, political selection may not translate into an entire violation of rules and standards (19,20 ka fark ho go, to he kia jata hai). However, it is not necessary; only women are the victims of such nepotism rather a male could also be persecuted.

5.4.2 Women as Head, not preferred

Atkinson et al., (2015) found that workplaces prefer males over females as their leaders. Similarly, discriminatory appointment and promotional practices remain barriers in institutions. Men and women do not have equal opportunity policies in the workplace (Atkinson et al., 2015). Similar concerns have expressed by the following participants.

A woman head was serving in Islamic Studies Department, and she said:-

Ninty nine percent males are working in my department from a lower to a higher level. I often receive the impression that “How a woman can be head here”?

She further told:-

The women working in the administration are often maltreated, as the majority of men assume that administration is not a women's domain. Even in the main establishment or administration women often face dejection with male colleagues.

Another male head of Electrical Engineering Department said:-

I do not believe if there are discriminations or barriers in universities on the upward hierarchical mobility of women. They can climb the hierarchical ladder if they qualify. Nonetheless subject to Engineering had lower women enrollment, consequently few women on work and eventually token representation on top hierarchical ladder seen. Currently, girls are coming to Engineering; however, traditionally they preferred going to Medicine if they could not secure admissions in Medicine they ended having degrees in Chemistry or Biology. As a result, we could assume there are few women in Mathematics, Physics or Engineering, due to lower enrollment not because of discrimination.

5.4.3 Male Dominating Sphere

A female head explained:-

If you look at the structure of universities, it is highly male dominating. Wherever you go, you will see male working there, and if a woman is working at a top hierarchical level, somehow back in their mind (male) they think women cannot dictate them. Being a head, I often get an impression; junior male clerical staff is not cooperating with me as they follow the male head's instructions. Although they are bound to listen, however, it is a challenge to manage male staff.

Another female head explained:-

I am a boss here, to maintain the order in the department, I have to maintain strict rules. However, if a male employee is not working properly and is not coming to office in time, I must take measures to deal with it. I will ask for the explanations, and if necessary, I have to ask for a written explanation for irresponsible behaviours. However, as a result, if a male thinks that, a woman boss harassing him or misusing her powers, would be highly unfair.

5.4.4 Lack of Access to Information

A female head explained:-

The male colleagues have a web of networks from the gatekeeper to the Rector or Vice Chancellor's (VC) office staff. Their access to crucial information is stress-free (yar yar keh kr sara kam niklava laty han). They manipulate the situations as they have information in advance. Due to social and cultural barriers women are bound to be excluded from informal networks. The exclusion from the informal networks affects the women's performance. As men have information in advance and they prepare themselves consequently well in advance, whereas delayed and lack of information undermine women's performance.

On the other hand, a male Head explained:-

The women have a lack of information on various substances. Our university regularly sends emails regarding the women's rights at the workplace, including harassment Act particulars. However, I am sure; many of them do not know what their workplace rights are? They kept on looking for somebody to brief them regarding their rights or about the course of work in the university. If they only started reading official e-mails every morning, they could get much information without probing someone. However, they have to manage themselves; nobody else could ever assist them.

5.4.4 Lack of Family and Kids Friendly Environment

Getting married, having kids and getting settled into family life has been a priority for Pakistani women since long. However, if she chooses to work, nobody else but she is responsible for keeping equilibrium between work and family. Academia is a demanding and competitive field; it requires tremendous time for lecturing and research. If a woman could not concentrate on work, she would stuck at the bottom of the hierarchy. On the other hand, the family also requires large commitments. Many of the study participants expressed their dissatisfaction with the lack of family and kids friendly environment at work. If there are some after school care centres in the university, which could accommodate women with children, could not only improve the women's performance rather, they might concentrate

more on work. However, universities do not accommodate women with children and discourage if they try to leave early to look after their children or family matters.

5.4.5 Long Working Hours

A male head explained:-

Nowadays one has to work for long hours like sometimes a male is staying till 20:00 or 21:00 o clock in universities to accomplish his job, but women cannot stay till that long. If a woman is working at top hierarchy, she has to give more time to the university, if needed, she may have to stay till 20:00 or 21:00 o clock. Occasionally she could be working on weekends or during the holidays. At the same time, she might have to travel for professional engagements, and many women's, kids and family engagements restrict them to do so. An organisation needs those personnel to work in top positions who can better manage and work extensively.

Another male head said:-

I think if a woman is working, she should not work extensively. She has to give priority to her kids and family, women's professional responsibilities should not disturb her children and relatives. After all, men are responsible for supporting family and kids financially. I never allowed my wife to work when our kids were young; they need her most, I was there to help them economically, so why should she make her life miserable?

Another male head said:

Academia is immensely growing in the competitive profession. Nowadays one has to work extensively in university. Concurrently, if a woman is aspiring to reach the top of the academic hierarchy, she would put extra time and effort, which I think is difficult for her.

He further told:

My mother was a college Lecture, and she used to go to the college only for her lectures and always came back before I arrived from school or college. This kind of job is best suitable for women that they are working as well as they are giving proper time to their kids.

5.4.6 Women Face no Barrier

A woman head believed:-

I do not think; there are any barriers in my university. I was directly appointed as an assistant professor because I had M.Phil. Degree and other requisite qualifications attained. Once, I did my Doctorate; I was not only promoted rather became head of the department without any hindrance.

She further narrated:-

There is “a requisite criterion” of selection and promotion in universities; no one can dare to stop you for promotion once you have a necessary qualification.

Another woman head said:-

I think, there are no such barriers in my university, if a woman is competent enough and she has fulfilled the requirement to become a Professor or Head, no one can stop her, but there is a question, does she meet the requirement? The professorship is a huge prestige in profession and society; however, it can be earned with extensive research and publication and highly accredited academic qualifications. I believe women have less time to concentrate solely on academic work.

Another male head assumed:-

I do not think that women are experiencing any barriers because in my university woman is working as a Dean. You might not see many women professors or Deans, but there are few, for sure. Indeed, scarcity of women in the top academic hierarchy is not the result of organisational discrimination; rather historically women were less educated in Pakistani society, consequently few women in the profession and top hierarchy. However, in next ten or twenty years, I can safely assume there will be only women on all influential posts. Considering the girl's enrollment in universities is over seventy. Eventually, they will come to the job market, with strong academic credential and no one could stop to excel.

5.5 Tips to Improve Women Status in Universities

| Suggestion | Definition | Example |
|--|--|--|
| Updated women's rights knowledge | In 1948, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted, and it proclaimed the same entitlements of women and men without distinction of any kind (UN, 2014). | University administration sent e-mails regarding harassment Act, but many women do not read them (Head, Library). |
| Online education | It often describes the effort of providing access to learning for those who are geographically distant (Panahi & Borna, 2014). | Women do not have knowledge about online education; they can stay at home and get foreign degrees (Head, Economics). |
| Administrative skills learning | Skills are required for success in administration, like communication, organising, planning (Schneider, 2014). | Many women do not effectively handle administrative matters (Male Dean, IBA) |
| Hard work/ Study, Publish and Supervise | | Prove it by hard work, equipped knowledge, publication and research supervision (Women Head, Mass Communication, Philosophy, Social Science, Sociology). |
| More women in higher hierarchical positions | | A woman can better understand the women's issues; she can help to develop effective policy for |

| | | |
|---|--|---|
| | | women (Philosophy, Head). |
| Confidence | A continuum, one may have complete trust and certainty in one's abilities or positions (Wesson, 2005). | Working women must have the confidence to face the world (Women Head, Social Science). |
| Women should not work in kid's early years | | Most women struggle when their children are young, they take many leaves and cannot concentrate, it is better not to work during the child's early days (Male Head, Library). |

5.5.1 Updated Women's Rights Knowledge

A male head explained:-

It is very important for women to seek knowledge regarding their rights in society and the workplace.

He further explained:-

Our university regularly sends us e-mails on our official address, regarding women's rights in the workplace and information about the harassment Act, women should read those e-mails regularly in detail. I got all the information, only reading university emails (he was well aware of women's rights and Law in the country), but our women colleagues mostly don't read those e-mails and as a consequence having limited information about their rights. Nobody can help them if women are not willing to help themselves.

5.5.2 Online Education

A woman head narrated:-

I believe women lack the information on latest trends in education; with advancement in technology, one can improve qualification without physically attending the educational

institutions. Various national and international universities have virtual campuses and courses so that they can learn through online options.

She added:-

I also believe that women do not have unlimited time to study, they have to look after their families and young kids. Instead of waiting for the right time to improve the qualification. Nevertheless, foreign qualification by distance learning is an objective decision. While staying at home with small kids, they can improve qualifications.

5.5.3 Administrative Skill Learning

A male head explained

Efficiency and administrative skills are a precondition for working on the upper echelon of academia or administrative hierarchy. Although women are moving into the education field, they have impressive educational attainments, they already serving on important posts and exploring challenging endeavours. However, they may lack the administrative skills.

5.5.4 Hard work/ Study, Publish and Supervise

A female head explained:-

We are living in a developing country where grasping a job is extremely difficult. To sustain in male dominating patriarchal setup, women have to work hard and prove their skills. Otherwise, it is hard to survive in male dominating university culture.

Another female head said:-

If a woman wants to excel in the university, she has to engage in research activities and should publish in internationally acknowledged scientific Journals. At the same time, she has to encourage her students to explore new ideas and new dimensions in research. Without exploring new ideas and working hard, she would be persistently underrepresented.

Another female head narrated:-

If a woman is planning to be a professor, she should plan her career in advance and devise a strategy to tackle challenges. She has to study intensively and publish in

scientifically proclaimed journals. Otherwise, reaching on top of academic hierarchy would be inaccessible.

5.5.5 More Women in Higher Hierarchical Positions

A woman head was thinking:

The appointment of women at higher hierarchical levels is significant for aspirants. They will better understand the glitches and challenges of women, and simultaneously, they can influence the policy decision at the organisational level. The absence of women at an influential level not only favour the male rather discriminate the women. Probably, male decision makers are not well aware of the women's concerns and apprehensions.

Another woman head believed:-

The women who had obtained good academic results have already proved to be the better candidate. However, the concentration of more women in decision-making positions would reasonably help other women to adjust effectively. A woman can better understand the other women's problems. If women get harassment-free environment, that will enhance their professional growth.

5.5.6 Confidence

A woman head explained:-

Working women should be more confident, and they should express if there are any maltreatments or discriminations at work. Our older generations of women have suffered immensely only because they never spoke against the mistreatment. Interestingly, they taught the coming generation to be silent and enduring to discriminations.

Another woman head said:-

One of my friends had experienced the physical assault in her childhood and her mother never believed her. The mother coached the daughter not to discuss a particular issue with anyone in future. If a mother at home is teaching her daughter to endure maltreatment how can she be confident at work?

Another female head recounted:

At the beginning of my career, I experienced sexual harassment at work. However, I did not know how to handle it and whom to discuss or report. Gradually, with age and expertise, I learned the skill to cope circumstances. If today someone will try to harass or discriminate me, I am not going to tolerate it.

5.5.7 Women should not Work in Kid's Early Years

A male head thought:-

I believe women are very hard working, but their domestic circumstances do not allow them to be consistent at work. During the child's early years, the woman probably suffers more and perhaps judged inefficient and less motivated.

To resolve this issue, he suggested:-

A woman should not work during the early years of child care. The early development of the child is crucial; only a mother can properly pamper her child. However, women could re-join jobs with better commitment and dedication, once the child is grown up.

5.6 Harassment Act and Implementation in University

| Implementation | Definition | Example |
|--|-------------------|--|
| Lack of Knowledge about the Law | | Though I do not know about the Law, if explanation provided, I may comment (five female heads, four male heads), if the Law has been enforced it must be implemented (Female, head). |
| Disciplinary committee | | We have constituted a committee, which deals with complaints of inappropriate behaviour (women, Head). |

| | |
|--|---|
| A committee constituted, law displayed, organised seminar | We have constituted a committee; we displayed the Law and organised a seminar (women, Head). |
| Not implemented | It is not important to make a Law, implementation is significant. We have laws from birth to death without implementation (Male, head)? |

5.6.1 Lack of Knowledge about the Law

In this study, there was six female, and eight male heads were interviewed, except one female and three male heads none of the others knew about the Workplace Act (2010). Some of them requested for an explanation of Law so on clarification they might comment on it. However on explanation; they said we have not heard about it.

Interestingly a female head said:-

If the law is enforced, “I am sure it must be implemented in the University” (Ager Law buna huva hai to yaqeenana lago huva hog a).

Another female head explained:-

In our society, harassment is a derogatory term; the majority got offensive on hearing term harassment. Nevertheless, understanding of harassment is significant for every woman. Unfortunately, I could not read the harassments Act (2010) yet.

5.6.2 Disciplinary Committee

In response to the questions, does the harassment Act (2010) is already implemented and the department has constituted a committee to interrogate the harassment in their university? Several participants misinterpreted it with the departmental disciplinary committee. The disciplinary committee usually deals with the misconduct complaints by the

students in the respective department. Though primarily, they were dealing with students' complaints, not the employees.

5.6.3 Committee Constituted, Law Displayed, Organized Seminar

The interviews have been conducted in the public large, small, public-private and private universities and there was only one female head in the sample, who thoroughly knew the harassment Act (2010).

She explained:-

We have organised a seminar in our department. It was compulsory for students and faculty to attend it. Through the symposium, I came to know what the Law is? How does it work? How could it be implemented? I thoroughly understood the Law by arranging and attending the seminar.

She further explained:-

Even after the workshop, I understood what the harassment is? I always used to think, physical encounter or physical assault could be termed as sexual harassment. Through the workshop, I learned a gaze or verbal expressions could be categorised as harassment. The latter is widely prevalent in our setup.

She also narrated: - After the seminar, we displayed the Law in our department, though, the researcher tried to find the displayed Act, however it could not be found.

5.6.4 Not Yet Implemented

A male head satirically asked the research, have you ever seen or heard such Laws have ever been implemented in our society in general?

He further added:-

I suppose all the women in the workplace, parliament and on the streets in Pakistan should be protected, but it is evident, the reality is conflicting. If the Laws in Pakistan been implemented, the situation of our society would have been different. The laws are Pakistan has always been violated by the maker as the Parliament has passed the Law, but women sitting in parliament are the victims of harassment.

Very thoughtfully he said:-

It was a formality to form a committee for so-called implementation of this Law, and we have made it sure that the formality is there...

Other male head with twenty-seven years' of experience described:-

I have not seen or ever heard if the Law is implemented in my university. We had two female Assistant Professors who were the victims of harassment. We came to know about the incident when the victims were asked to resign their jobs. The boss has doomed that his offer declined.

He further added:-

I think, despite the implementation of Law in universities, we cannot control the harassment against women. Considering the prevalent culture of society, harassment is embedded in our everyday life; men can handle the excitement of viewing women. I know women are harassed everywhere in the society, and if a woman is working with males, and she says that "I have never experienced harassment", I am not going to believe it, as it is not possible to escape harassment in Pakistani society.

He also narrated:-

However women are reluctant to report such incidences, after reporting the privacy of victim is subject to scrutiny, and she should reveal harasser's identity, which would further create hurdles for women. Even if there is zero tolerance for harassment in the society, still there will be harassment, it is not necessary that women receive harassment from boss rather she could receive harassment from male working on a lower grade.

A female head said:-

In my university, there has been a male from the clerical staff he took the mobile numbers of all the female employees; he used to send us obscene messages, that was disturbing on opening your phone one come across to sexually explicit horrible material. Although he was traced later, and I think, he is not in the university now, but the experience was dreadful.

She further elaborated, If Harassment Act is already enforced, there is need to implement it in true spirit. She further explained:-

Awareness cannot be given by organising seminars in the universities. Who does in this society not know about the harassment? Arranging a seminar in university is not significant, either the victims or the harassers will attend it. Nevertheless, women can only be protected if the harassers know there is a severe punishment (detention or removal from the service) for nonconformity to approved behaviours in society, otherwise making and enforcement of Laws is merely the wastage of time.

Another female head recounted, there was a harassment case in my department; male head (who was serving at the date of the incident) might be involved in harassing a women faculty member. I am not familiar with meticulous details, as I was not the head that time. It seemed she was reluctant to discuss the issue.

Another female head said:-

Have you ever heard somebody faced trial due to harassment Law, if the Law is not implemented it is useless, A Law without implementation is merely a piece of paper. The punishments would create deterrence; the culprits would be cautious before committing demeaning behaviour.

Satirically, she narrated; women have harassed in the workplace, on the street and in public transports before and after 2010. One could well imagine how effective the implementation is.

She further explained:

The majority of my colleagues are male, though I never experienced harassment in my department, the situation is not same in all departments, I know women face harassment in other departments. I have neither organised a seminar nor displayed it in my department. The overall environment in my department is respectful and safe, seminars and display of Act are not required.

A male head explained:-

I do not think so; my university has implemented or displayed the harassment Act, however coincidentally I read it last month. On visiting a Government Institute, I came across with enlarged displayed Act in its entrance lobby. After that I read the whole Law, it sounds interesting. I believe the display of Act in the entrance of departments is significant, where

students and faculty can easily understand, it is essential for everyone to recognise what the Law is.

A male head said:-

I do not know about the Law. However, we do not need any Law here, as Islam has already given us a Law to respect the women. He further explained, but I know women face hype of harassment in our society. However, I am bound to believe; they are not experiencing any such problem because they are not reporting. I assume, if somebody is not speaking or reporting, everything is ok on other ends.

Another male head said:-

Though I have not read the Law yet, however harassment against women cannot be controlled in our society. Because male will keep on harassing the women and women have no other option but to tolerate if they wanted to come out of their house. Hence, many of them never dare to report, due to the fear and stigma. If she belongs to the strong family, she might file a case; otherwise, a middle-class woman prefers to stay quiet.

Another female head explained:-

Although many women are facing harassment in the workplace and men, organise it to suppress the freedom and confidence of women. Almost a decade ago most of the women were newly exposed to male predatory work sphere and were lacking confidence. Gradually women are learning work challenges and coping with unprecedented situations. However, the future of female workers in Pakistan would be entirely different than prevalent.

5.6.5 Observation of Harassment Act Display

The third part of the research methodology (Triangulation) used in this research was based on the observation, which was specifically intended to capture, if the harassment Act was displayed in departments and Institutes of large-small public, large private and large public- private university's premises, as it was a mandatory implementation step as per HEC Harassment Act implementation guidelines. According to the HEC guidelines, it was also instructed that Act needs to be displayed in the entrances of departments or Institutes, and/or on the places where everyone can see and read it. During the observation, it was found not even a single department or institute of the sample, had displayed it.

5.7 Conclusion: Theoretical Implication

There have been fourteen interviews conducted, and there were six female heads and eight male heads from the large public, the small public, the public-private and the private universities in Lahore, Pakistan. The participants asked to discuss the reasons of underrepresentation, barriers and tips in accessing the academic excellence and positions of power. Mainly the participants interviewed to get the information on the implementation of harassment Act (2010) in university. Here the findings of the study will be linked to existing literature:-

5.7.1 Patriarchy

The participants expressed patriarchy, and social conservatism of the society has been a barrier for women in the labour market since long. As Patriarchal theory has defined for centuries that men are the central authoritative figure, both at a micro and macro level (Ferguson, 1999). At the domestic level, women have to be dependent on the father, brother, husband, sons and in the extended family, on uncles. The men in the Pakistani society supposed to be a decision maker; women are directed to seek permission endeavours related to education, employment and/or spouse selection. The expedition of women entering into paid labour force has been relatively new in Pakistan, since last two decades; however, society has seen an influx of women into the labour market. Both men and women need to adapt themselves to changing circumstances of the society. The men try to implement same patriarchal mindset on working women by controlling her work, progress, and decisions. The participants have also told despite being working women; their prime responsibility is family and domestic tasks. Women are required to uphold the balance between work and family without additional support.

5.7.2 Gender Role Expectation of Women

The sociological points of views are also significant to discuss here. Traditional domestic chores had considered a woman's domain exclusively. She supposed to be a perfect

mother, wife, daughter in law, sister-in-law, daughter, and finally a professional woman. If a woman opted for a professional career, it is her responsibility to manage equilibrium at all ends. The families are less likely to understand and accommodate her as she has to work outside a home on the other hand academia also demand her thorough professional behaviour. If coincidentally women are inept to keep balance, they may experience tags of unstable mother, wife and apathetic professional. Considering the societal expectation of perceived role, women may have marginal spell to improve academic credential. Eventually, they would trap at the bottom of the hierarchy. On the contrary, delayed professional credential due to kids growing years, would not only create a gap between career rather would exclude them from competitions due to approaching retirement.

5.7.3 Cultural and Stereotypical Role

According to expectations States theory (Berger, Fisek & Conner, 1974) hierarchies of evaluation, influence, and participation are referred to the power and prestige structure or the status structure of the group. It also stated certain traits typically associated with men than women. Traits like competence, authority, and decision-making are typically affiliated with those of higher status, and because cultural and stereotypical beliefs have led us to associate these with men, there is a correlation between gender and higher positioning within the organisations. Essentially, employers' expectations of an employee based on status, gender, or role shape the chances of that employee's opportunity to take on greater and "valuable" responsibility (Correll and Ridgeway, 2003). In this study, the departmental heads have highlighted the missing traits of women (lack of specific education, lack of confidence, lack of administrative skills, lack of access to information, exclusion from informal networks) which could be inevitable for attaining the positions of influence. Similarly, they highlighted women lack the decision-making powers and confidence which are crucial for sustainability and attainability of higher hierarchical positions. Two conflicting expectations of society have also been noticed here. Informal networks are considered to be an important element for progress in academic, because of the dominating male culture in university, women not only excluded from the informal networks rather macro and micro culture also disapprove the women to be the part of such networks. The social capital

(Bourdieu 1986) which is required to climb the hierarchal position is also missing or discouraging for women.

5.7.4 Glass Ceiling

Consistent with Hymowitz and Schellhardt (1986) the notion of the 'glass ceiling' is an unofficial barrier to opportunities within an organisation that is perceived to prevent the groups of the workers, particularly women, in accessing positions of power (Mattis 2004). It was also found there were some invisible barriers to women's progress in universities as some heads considered women's lack of confidence, managerial and administrative skills translated into lower hierarchical progress. Simultaneously dual responsibilities might hinder the women to attain the higher hierarchical level. Some of the male heads have pointed; women may take transitory leaves during early years of a child's development and re-join the job with better concentration and commitment. These suggestions itself excluded the women from competitions and suggesting a gap between careers. The growing corporate style academia requires women to attend meetings or gatherings in the twilight, which is challenging due to domestic responsibilities and society's disapproval. As a result, they excluded from informal networks, which are significant social capital to attain academic excellence and positions of power. Simultaneously, many of the study participants have told they have experienced the harassment on their way to progress. Despite the obstacles that women cannot stay longer and consequently excluded from informal networks. Inadequate safety networks in society and lack of implementation of the harassment Act in university restrict the inclusion of women in rewarding networks.

5.7.5 Sexual Harassment

The harassment is defined as persistent negative actions by one or several persons towards an individual or a group of individuals, who have difficulties in defending themselves (Hecker, 2007). The male co-workers, clients, and supervisors used harassment as an "equaliser" against women in power, consistent with research showing that sexual harassment is less about sexual desire than about control and domination (Hecker 2007). The

several incidences of harassment against women have been disclosed by heads of the departments and institutes during interviews. However, they recounted, victims were forced to resign, as they refused to comply with the sexual favours. Similarly, a significant number of respondents admitted lack of indulgence in understanding the term harassment and unfamiliarity of harassment Act (2010). Although the Government of Pakistan has enforced harassment Act (2010) and Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan made it mandatory to implement the Act, however, none of the university has complied. In existing circumstances, much of discriminatory and derogatory practices not merely prevail, rather it promotes the prevalence of demeaning and unsupportive environment. The inadequacies of state and organisational control propose women to be silent and tolerant to discriminatory treatments. Shallow retaliation would afflict the women in the form of stigmatisation or publicity and/or by losing a job.

6. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION

6.1 Summary and Conclusion

The main objective of the study was to discern if the majority of women are working on the lower academic hierarchical levels, based on literature review, it is anticipated on the path of achieving higher hierarchical levels in universities, they might experience barriers, exploitation and bigoted treatments. Subsequently, the study also presented an insight as to what extent “Protection against Harassment of Women in the Workplace Act”, (2010) was implemented in universities to sentinel the women’s working conditions.

In consistence with other South Asian countries, the latter part of the 20th century witnessed an influx of women in the paid workforce in Pakistan. The surge in the number of professionally erudite women entering academia might change the social fabric and accept new role definitions for women and men. The women in Pakistan have evolved in various organisations including academia in nearly past 20 years. However, they had experienced hindrances in attaining, retaining and excelling at work. The numerous hindrances continue to impede them; they are still hampered by the existence of gendered values and attitudes towards their work and non-work responsibilities to attain the academic excellence and positions of power. Somehow, the conservative and patriarchal social and cultural factors have historically restricted most of the women from entering the job market. Nevertheless, with the recent changes in society caused by intensified earning stresses, expansion of educational facilities and improved access to learning, more and more women are entering the job market in almost every working sphere, especially in higher education institutes. However, the vast majority of women concentrated in lower hierarchical levels (Atkinson et al., 2015; Avin et al., 2015; Jayatilake et al., 2014; Kim 2000; Sandhu Singh & Batra, 2015; Uche & Jack, 2014), and are under-represented in higher hierarchical echelons, positions of power, positions of decision-making and influence and if they try to climb the upper hierarchical positions, they may experience glass ceiling, exploitation, discrimination, and harassment (Dost, Ahmed & Hyder, 2009; Ismail, 2010; Jabbar & Imran 2013; Khan, Rehman & Dost, 2012; Rehman & Tariq, 2012).

To comprehend the repressive phenomena of women's struggle to access higher levels in Academia, three barriers societal, organisational and personal were identified, that may hamper the women to pass through the glass ceiling and reach the higher echelons of academia. The barriers were elaborated by various theoretical and conceptual frameworks which explain that societies may inhibit the women by patriarchal clench in which male portion of the society may benefit more. Simultaneously "gender schemas" or stereotypes led people to overrate men's abilities and underrate women's. The most prominent explanation for "vertical occupational segregation" lies in perceived roles, cultural stereotypes of attributes and roles each gender is presumed to occupy may start in early developmental years with socialisation according to the Expectation States theory. Similarly, childcare and domestic works are all structural dynamics that have affected the women's potentials of shattering the glass ceiling.

Consistently, societal practices, patriarchal mindset, hegemonic masculinities and sexual harassment could be a series of barriers to hamper the women performance in an organisational setting. As per Connell's well-known theory of Hegemonic Masculinity (1987), which explains the intersection of gender and power and stresses that sexual harassment is less about sexual desire than about control and domination. The generation of women may have experienced harassment on the way to break the glass ceiling. Simultaneously, the Connell (1995) argues that society privileges a single version of masculinity above all others, which guarantees the dominant position of men and the subordination of women.

The opportunity networks and inclusion in broader networking forum could enhance the capabilities of individual and women academic might lack that social capital, which is compulsory to earn the higher positions in academia. Consistently, Bourdieu explained that social capital enhances one's ability to advance in the competition between individuals. Advantageous relationships can secure material, or symbolic 'profit' women may lack the social capital which establishes a concrete base for the growth of solidarity (Bourdieu, 1986).

Finally, the personal engagements and commitment of women may create the gaps between men and women's academic responsibilities, household duties, family situations, sacrificing career dynamics, apprehensions on women's ability and style might work as personal barriers to impede women in accessing positions of influence.

In order to measure the research questions, the study has applied triangulation method; the first part of the research was based on a survey which focused on the inquiry to measure the prevalence and magnitude of personal, organisational and societal barriers along with other conceivable dynamics in universities and its impact on the underrepresentation of women. Simultaneously the knowledge of respondents regarding the implementation of harassment Act (2010) in universities was explored. The survey also discovered some other contributing factors, which were preventing women from accessing higher hierarchical levels.

The second part of the research consisted of semi-structured interviews with the heads of the Departments and Deans of Institutes/Schools. The specific rationale of these interviews was to explore the actual steps had been taken for the implementation of harassment Act (2010) in universities. According to the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC), “policy guidelines against sexual harassment in institutes of higher education” heads of departments and institutes are responsible for implementing the Act in respective institutes by organising a seminar, constituting the inquiry committee and displaying the Act in the entrances of their departments (HEC, 2011). Besides, the interview also explored the reason and barriers which women academics might be experiencing in accessing the position of power and excellence.

The third part of the research was observation, which solely intended to capture if the harassment Act was displayed in universities.

A sample of the survey has been selected randomly from the large public, small public, large public-private and large private universities (four universities) situated in Lahore, Pakistan. The survey data revealed that 67 percent of the participants were working as Lecturers and below hierarchical levels (Administrative, Research, Teaching and Laboratory Assistant).

The findings of this study exhibited that the advanced education, extensive job experience and rigorous scientific publications are pre-requisites to access higher hierarchical positions in universities. Although improvement in one credential and ignoring the other might not translate into same outcomes, however despite acquiring appointment in academia, improving the education credentials and having adequate years of job experience, one needs to concentrate meticulously on scientific productivity to further climb the hierarchical ladder, towards the senior Professorial ranks. The pre-requisite criteria's were stressing the

prevalence of meritocracy in universities. However, the scientific literature regarding the impediments for women working on lower hierarchical positions highlighted, on the way to climb senior academic posts globally women academics might experience the diverse challenges, which could make it, even more, harder for them to pass through the glass ceiling and reaching the highest extreme of the ladder. In the current study, a substantial number of respondents was working on lower hierarchical positions in universities, and various personal, organisational and societal barriers were measured, which could intervene the scientific productivity of the respondents, and eventually would subsidise to the denied access to senior positions in the long run.

As far as the personal barriers related to the family responsibilities of the respondents were concerned, it was found that family structure might not have a significant regressive influence on the publication productivity. However, the assistance for domestic work and share of domestic responsibilities could enhance the productivity of the respondents who had assistance at home were highly productive.

After dealing with personal impediments, the respondents were able to land into the universities, where another series of barriers could contribute to denying access to most senior academic ranks. The teaching workload would be an important consideration in this regards; It was found that higher teaching workload has a negative impact on the publication productivity. It was also found that majority of the respondents had not participated in the academic conferences abroad or within the country, but those who had participated were highly productive. It was also found that respondents who had supervised the BS. (Hons.) and Master thesis in last five years was often more productive as compared to the respondents who had not supervised the thesis.

Finally the societal practice and patriarchal mind set could hamper the women as sexual harassment was widely prevalent and experienced by women working on various hierarchical levels in various universities, in the universities and/or on the way and back from work.

Under such circumstance, it can be assumed that effective formal control and implementation of “The Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace Act” (2010) in universities was crucially important as unsafe and intimidating environment could inhibit the respondent’s potentials. Until recent past, sexual harassment in the workplace was

not deemed to be legislated in Pakistan. The women were more vulnerable to discernments, maltreatment, and harassment at workplace. Nevertheless, since 2010, sex discrimination in the workplace has prohibited by the Law in Pakistan by enforcing “Protection against Harassment of Women at the Workplace Act”, 2010 (Gillani, 2010). Still, the harassment continued to be a widespread problem for female workers (Peetz, Strachan & Troup, 2014) in general and in higher education institutions particularly, indeed the Act has not fully implemented until recent past. According to the Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan, eighty per cent of universities in the country have not implemented the Act (HEC, 2013). Consequently, nearly fifty percent of study participants were unacquainted to this Act and over eighty percent respondents were unaware of its implementation in their respective university. The heads of institutes who were primarily responsible for implementing the Act themselves had no clue or/and had limited information about the Act.

As far as the Harassment Act knowledge and implementation was concerned, the Professor respondents were more knowledgeable as compared to Lecturers and below hierarchical level, Assistant Professors and Associate Professors. At the same time, the respondents in large public university were more knowledgeable than the respondents in large public-private and small university, and less knowledgeable than the respondents in large private university. However, public universities (small, large) did not vary in the implantation of harassment Act as compared to large private and large public-private university, respondents in all universities more often told that Act was not implemented.

As far as the clauses of Harassment Act for its implementation in various universities are concerned, the public universities did not vary in a display of harassment Act as compared to private and public-private university. On the other hand, the universities did vary in organising the seminar about harassment Act. The small public and large public-private universities had organized seminars to create awareness among respondents least often.

Finally, for the constitution of a committee to deal with harassment complaints, the respondents in large public university told that it was less often that their university had constituted the committee by appointing the Harassment Monitoring Office (HMO) to deal with the harassment complaints.

Simultaneously the multiple reasons for the underrepresentation of women were also analysed. It was highlighted that women lack the leadership qualities, lack of decision - making powers which a boss needs to implement/ change various policies could be possible reasons for women's underrepresentation. It was also found that women do not fit to the image of masculine leaders and consequently may not be preferred for promotion and organisational representativeness (Bombuwela & De Alwis, 2013; Eagly & Carli, 2007).

The second factor highlighted that women's underrepresentation could be the result of a career path with low progress prospects. Concurrently, despite choosing a career with lower progress prospects, women's least interest in professional growth could result in a lower proportion of higher hierarchical positions. It was found that due to the patriarchal controls women might encourage to choose behavioural patterns which promote lower employment progress (e.g. excluded or discouraged to be the part of informal networks).

The third factor emphasised women working in lower hierarchical positions become more frequent targets of sexual harassment as male members supervised them. Those discriminatory practices could hinder to climb higher hierarchical positions (Anila, 1998; Avin et al., 2015; Guerrier & Amel, 2004; Haarr & Morash, 2013; Hannum et al., 2015; Hrcp, 2000; ILO, 2001; Karega, 2002; Konrad & Gutek, 1986; Lockwood et al., 2007, Luthar & Luthar, 2007; McDonald, 2012; Peterson, 2015; Pollard, 2006; Sandhu, Singh & Batra, 2015; Okechukwu et al., 2014; Scott & Martin, 2006; Weiss, 2012).

The second phase of the study, the semi-structured interviews with heads of departments, Deans and Directors have revealed that a vast majority of heads were unacquainted with the harassment Act (2010), and the majority of them agreed that lack of implementation of Laws is a general practice in the country and harassment Act is not an exception. Consequently, there were no seminars organised, harassment monitoring officers were not appointed, and the Act was not displayed.

In addition, the interviews also discovered that patriarchal mindset, the conservatism of the society, dual responsibilities, family and parenting responsibilities, exclusion from informal networks, politically influenced appointments, long working hours, lack of decision making and confidence could impede the women in accessing the positions of power. The participants have suggested that with advanced learning skills, better administrative abilities, scientifically acclaimed publications and boosted confidence women may excel.

This study is a contribution to knowledge and existing literature on the impediments of women on the way to move on to upper echelons, career experiences, discriminations, harassment and barriers which have been under-researched, especially in Pakistan. The study claims to have made a contribution to a wider understanding of barriers contributing the underrepresentation of women on upper echelons in university, exposing a significant impact of cultural practices, patriarchal university culture, gender role expectations, lack of family-friendly policies, lack of implementation of harassment Act and inadequate checks which may contribute to the underrepresentation of women in academic excellence and positions of power in universities in Pakistan. Global measures are required through the efficient mechanism and implementation of laws to ensure gender equality in all social sectors of their respective societies.

The present study also highlighted that patriarchy and social conservatism of the society had been a barrier for women in the labour market since long. Both males and females might need to adapt themselves to changing circumstances of society. At work, men might try to implement patriarchal mindset on women academics by controlling her work, progress, and decisions. Some of the male heads of departments and institutes have pointed out that it would be better for women academics, if they take transitory leave during the early years of a child's development, and they can re-join the jobs once their kids are grown up, with better concentration and commitment to the work. Whereas on the domestic front, women's are solely accountable for maintaining a balance between work and family, society in general and domestic male heads specifically requires them to prioritise home, husband and kids. On the other hand, cultural traits and stereotypes are important to access the women's success and commitment to work, as certain traits typically associated with men than women. Traits like competence, authority, and decision-making are typically affiliated with those of higher status, and because cultural and stereotypical beliefs have led us to associate it, with men, there is a correlation between gender and higher positioning within organisations. Many of the departmental and institutional heads have highlighted these missing traits of women academics which might be compulsory for positions of influence. Similarly, they pointed that women lack the managerial and administrative, decision-making power, confidence, and informal networking skills. Two conflicting expectations of society have been highlighted here. Informal networks are considered to be an essential element for

progress in academic, due to dominating male culture in university women not only excluded from the informal network rather macro and micro cultural expectations also disapprove the women to be the part of such networks. Similarly, a large proportion of women academics have experienced harassment in their work and in some cases, women were asked to resign as they failed to comply. Thus, it endorses the concept that male co-workers and supervisors might use harassment as an "equaliser" against women in power, that sexual harassment is less about sexual desire than about control and domination. A vast majority of the women academics have endorsed that unofficial barriers and harassment at work could hamper them to climb academic excellence and positions of power as in traditional patriarchal society women at the top might be a threat to man's status. The lack of implementation of the harassment Act (2010) in universities is encouraging the perpetrators to be persistent in disguise.

6.2 Discussion and Practical Implications

After reviewing the study findings and analysing how this study relates to the underrepresentation of women with glass ceiling and how poor implementation of the Law, gender-based theoretical conceptualization, societal, organisational and personal barriers to women could influence representation of women in academic excellence and positions of power

Now, there are four major themes related to important aspects of this research which are summarised below:-

6.2.1 Social Conservatism and Patriarchy

The social conservatism and patriarchal controls had extensively influenced the women's status in Pakistani society. According to Moghadam (1992), patriarchy persists in areas of limited industrialisation, urbanisation, and proletarianization, and may be legislated by the state. At the same time, the collision of tradition and modernity and unwanted changes, particularly on the status of women, may result in a preoccupation with cultural identity among some social groups (Moghadam, 1992). Traditionally, due to conservatism, lack of access to educational institutions, lack of effective safety mechanism women was excluded

from attaining education. However, with recent improvements in areas mentioned above, women were motivated and encouraged to acquire higher education, which ultimately leads them to enter the job market and academia is widely appreciated profession. Still, the vast majority of women population is uneducated and under the control of hegemonic patriarchal mindset. Though, with changing financial pressures, somehow people started accepting the women working status. However, educated women in academia are facing a different level of challenges stem from patriarchal holds and pressures. As the significant majority is working on lower hierarchical levels and they are supervised and monitored by men. The prevailing and persistent social conservatism and patriarchal mindset of controlling the woman's progress could be challenging for educated women in universities. Considering the majority of Pakistani women are poor and work very hard and earned jobs with immense struggle and exertion, their social protection and safety networks are typically inadequate or missing (Tarar & Pulla, 2014). Therefore, the majority of the female population may not afford to be unemployed; they may face inequality, discrimination, and sexual harassment as a part of the job (Pakistan Employment Trends, 2013).

6.2.2 Social Capital and Hegemonic Masculinities

It was found that higher teaching workload has a negative impact on the publication productivity, higher the teaching workload, lower will be the publications. It was found that majority of the respondents have not participated in the conferences abroad and within the country. However, high conference participation and thesis supervision have a positive impact on the publications. The respondents with more conference participation and thesis supervision were more productive compared to respondents with few or without participation and supervision. It is anticipated that inclusion in broader networks (academic conferences) and enhanced research supervisions could enhance the social capital of women in universities. Somehow the social capital enhances one's ability to advance in the competition between individuals. Advantageous relationships can secure material or symbolic 'profit', which establishes a concrete base for the growth (Bourdieu, 1986: 249). Bourdieu suggests that group members enjoy certain privileges they have not necessarily earned.

Finally, it was found that harassment might not have an impact on the productivity of the respondents. However, it was widely prevalent, and women working in universities have

experienced it on the university premises, on the way and back from university. These findings endorse the idea after passing over traditional and conservative barriers once women have successfully found their way into the workforce and landed in a position in their desired organisation, other types of discrimination become apparent to undermine the work by the persistent hostile environment, as harassment used as an "equaliser" against women in power. The sexual harassment is less about sexual desire than about control and domination (McLaughlin, Uggen, & Blackstone, 2009).

6.2.3 Lack of Family and Kids Friendly Environment

The lack of family and kids friendly policies could seriously affect the women's intellect and performance in the universities. Some studies have already highlighted the significance of such facilities. According to Suprinovič, Schneck, & Kay (2015) formal family-leave policies, on-site childcare, and spousal hiring policies positively affect the productivity of women in academics (Suprinovič, Schneck, & Kay, 2015). On the other hand, Moors, Malley, & Stewart, (2014) associated institutional support for family commitments with job satisfaction and a sense of belongingness to women academics. The women with low institutional support for family commitments were significantly less satisfied with their jobs and felt less belonging to their workplace environment (Malley, & Stewart, 2014). It was also found in this study in Survey that respondents with domestic assistance were productive more often. Simultaneously, in semi-structured interviews with the departmental and institutional heads for present research, some participants also expressed their grievances for the lack of family and kids friendly policies for women academics. Equipped day cares and after school care in universities could make women academics to concentrate more on their work.

6.2.4 Hard Work/ Study, Publish and Supervise

Research, publications, the number of citations, the journal impact factor score, and the h-index had become significant in university culture and for academics to advance professionally. The publication metrics can be used for various purposes for tenure and promotion, grant applications, renewal reports, benchmarking, recruiting efforts, and administrative purposes for departmental or for university performance reports (Carpenter,

Cone, & Sarli, 2014). So, the universities increasingly encourage research and publication culture, as it benefits the candidate, supervisor, institution, and wider community (Pickering, & Byrne, 2014). Both survey and semi-structured interviews of the study have exhibited that women have fewer publications, and the majority was working on lower academic hierarchies. Some of the study participants in interviews expressed the concerns that several women academics are less enthusiastic about research and publications. Some of them are even reluctant to supervise innovative projects and ideas. However, it is a documented fact that research and publications are mandatory to excel and climb the hierarchical ladder and without improving the publications baggage, it would be challenging to make the place in current academic culture.

6.2.5 Implementation of the Law is Important

According to the directives of the Government of Pakistan and policy guidelines of Higher Education Commission (HEC), the harassment Act (2010) is mandatory to implement in higher education institutions. Unfortunately, none of the university in the sample has implemented it by 2014, and many heads of the departments were oblivious of the Act, who was supposed to implement the Act in their respective institutes and departments. As per the study findings, harassment in universities was widely prevalent and customary. Without formal control, such demeaning behaviours not only go unchecked but encourage the replication. Though recently, some harassment cases of Professors, Deans and Vice-chancellors' have been highlighted by the national media, cases being proceeded in courts, but the judgments of cases yet to come. However, effective law implementation could discourage the culprits and women might feel safer and would better concentrate at work.

6.3 Limitations of the Study

There are the primary limitations to this study:-

This study has included only the women working at various hierarchical levels in universities in the survey part of the research; it was anticipated that due to a large concentration of women at lower hierarchical positions; they might experience various

impediments to access higher hierarchical positions. In order to test this assumption, this study has not included the men in the sample. However, the comparison of men and women working in various hierarchical positions and confounding impediments could have exhibited concrete differences between men and women.

In order to measure the several impediments, various reference periods were measured, especially in terms of sexual harassments experience, the reference period of sexual harassment question in the questionnaire was life time experience. However, this response did not reflect or measured the extent of sexual harassment experience of the respondents on their current hierarchical positions and/or during the advancement from one hierarchical position to other positions.

The data has been collected from only four universities of one Province, and the sample size was ($n = 411$) not large enough to the extent, for the generalizability of the results on the targeted population.

This study has been conducted only in one district (Lahore), if it would have been conducted in various other districts, maybe, there would be various other perspectives regarding impediments could be captured, and the implementation of the Harassment Act might vary.

The participants selected for this study had already achieved a prestigious position in the university, as getting employment in the university is considered honourable, some participants (Lecturer) do not deem themselves working on lower hierarchical levels. However, this study did not include the women working in other sectors like School Education, Medicine, Engineering, Law, Military and non-profit and Non-Governmental organisations (NGOs). They might have a different perspective on research questions.

The majority of the participants were working in lower hierarchical positions, but they were very young, participants with more years of experience might have another perspective.

As far as the semi-structured interviews in the study were concerned, the Deans and heads of the departments regarding the implementation of Harassment Act were more likely giving official and formal responses, instead of discussing the actual steps had taken and how they implemented it, they were giving politically correct responses. In rare cases they informed the interviewer that Act was already implemented in the institute while probing

which steps they have taken for implementation, they informed all the requisite formalities of implementation are intact, and we already have implemented it.

6.4 Suggestions for Future Research

The future research, pursuing the same research questions could be conducted using a design that would address limitations stated above. The population of study could include all provinces of Pakistan:-

1. In addition, the study could be conducted on women employed outside of higher education, such as Business, Law, Military and Engineering.
2. The future studies could also be conducted using a population of women academics outside of Pakistan, including both developed and developing countries. There can be the comparison of Pakistani working women and women academics in Germany or other European countries. Despite the long standing gender equality programs in academically advance countries, why there are no big differences in the representation of women at academic excellence positions as compared to gender sensitive regions.
3. The future research might use other theoretical perspectives like Feminist perspectives, organisational theories and power structure.
4. There should be more research on barriers for women in academia in Pakistan as we have limited studies on the topic until recently.
5. There should be some studies by Governmental and non-Governmental bodies, to compile the data regarding the proportion of women working in the higher education sector and percentage of women employed at various hierarchical levels.
6. It is assumed, that increasing the representation of women at higher and decision - making positions will have widespread effects on all forms of sex discrimination and improve gender equality at all levels. This is not a quick and easy solution, but one, that is likely to have wide-ranging benefits for all employees, male as well as female, in the long run. More researches in this direction could give the better picture of Pakistani academia.
7. The Higher Education Commissions of Pakistan could compile the gender segregated data of Higher Education Institutions and its employees, based on hierarchical

positions, pay scale and pay differences. The future researchers could work more effectively on same or relevant issues.

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Appendix A: - Chapter 4: Analysis Tables

Table X Designation of Participants and Type of the University Cross tabulation

| | | | Type of the University | | | | Total |
|-------------|--------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------|----------------|---------|--------------|--------|
| | | | Large Public | Public-Private | Private | Small Public | |
| Designation | Lecturer and below | Count | 9 | 7 | 7 | 2 | 25 |
| | | % within Type of the University | 50.0% | 63.6% | 77.8% | 100.0% | 62.5% |
| | Asstt. Prof | Count | 5 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| | | % within Type of the University | 27.8% | 9.1% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 15.0% |
| | Associate Prof | Count | 3 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| | | % within Type of the University | 16.7% | 18.2% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 12.5% |
| | Professor | Count | 1 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 4 |
| | | % within Type of the University | 5.6% | 9.1% | 22.2% | 0.0% | 10.0% |
| | Total | Count | 18 | 11 | 9 | 2 | 40 |
| | | % within Type of the University | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% | 100.0% |

Table X Chi-Square Tests

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) |
|------------------------------|--------------------|----|-----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 8.922 ^a | 9 | .445 |
| Likelihood Ratio | 11.390 | 9 | .250 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .542 | 1 | .462 |
| N of Valid Cases | 40 | | |

a. 13 cells (81.2%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .20.

Symmetric Measures

| | | Value | Approx. Sig. |
|--------------------|------------|-------|--------------|
| Nominal by Nominal | Phi | .472 | .445 |
| | Cramer's V | .273 | .445 |
| N of Valid Cases | | 40 | |

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 Factor Analysis for Prevalent Harassing Behaviours

| | Mean | Std. Deviation | Analysis N |
|--|------|----------------|------------|
| Low organizational hierarchical positions are more frequent targets of sexual harassment | 3.13 | 1.114 | 411 |
| High hierarchical positions are more frequent target of sexual harassment | 2.48 | 1.133 | 411 |
| Women's underrepresentation at AE and PP is result of SH | 2.95 | 1.206 | 411 |
| Women's underrepresentation due to least interest in Profession | 2.43 | 1.326 | 411 |
| Women's underrepresentation due to family and parenting | 3.27 | 1.134 | 411 |
| Women's underrepresentation due to sticky floor occupations | 3.06 | 1.115 | 411 |
| Women's underrepresentation due to patriarchal system | 3.18 | 1.176 | 411 |
| Organizations prefer to appoint male heads | 3.00 | 1.187 | 411 |
| Women lack the leadership qualities | 2.40 | 1.146 | 411 |
| Women lack decision making power | 2.55 | 1.070 | 411 |
| Women do not fit the image of the (masculine) leader | 2.60 | 1.096 | 411 |
| Women may be competent but not likeable as Head | 2.69 | 1.178 | 411 |

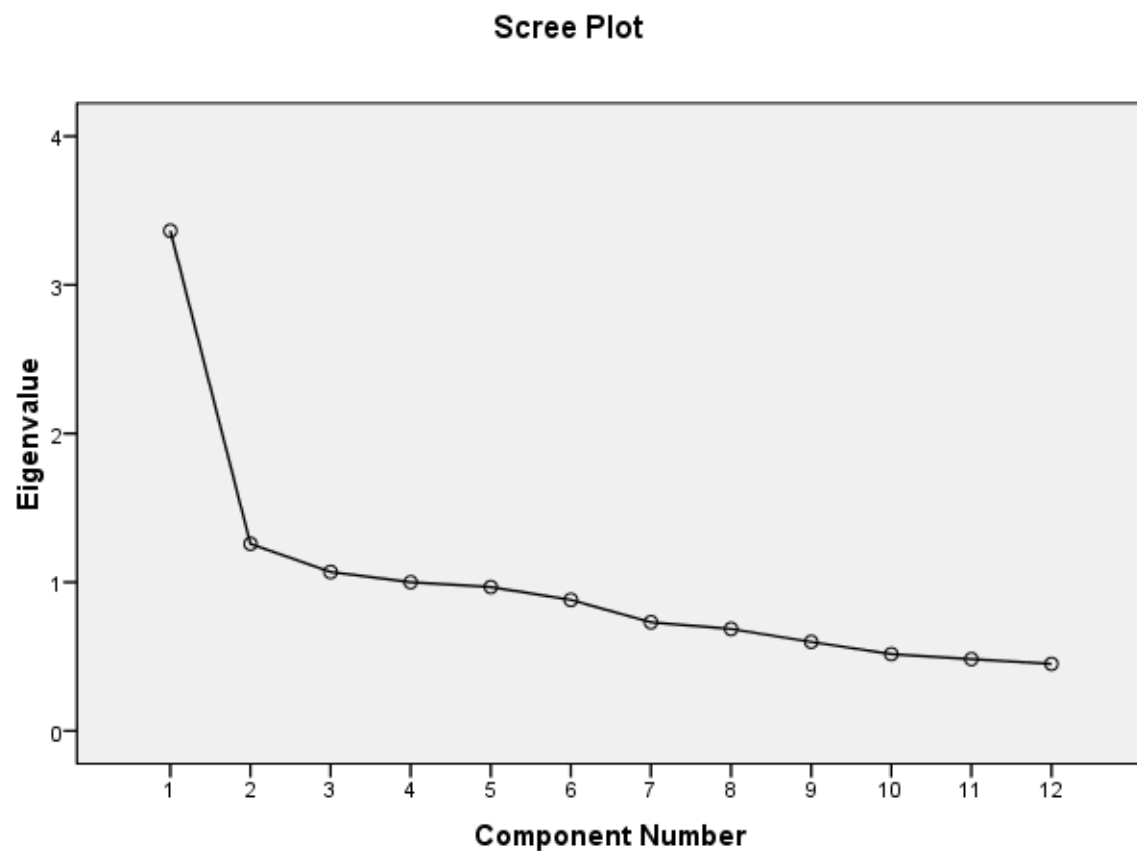
[illegible]

| | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|---------|
| Bartlett's Test of Sphericity | Approx. Chi-Square | 829.535 |
| | Df | 66 |
| | Sig. | .000 |

Table 3 Total Variance Explained

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues | | | Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings | | | Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings | | |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|---------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % | Total | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1 | 3.364 | 28.034 | 28.034 | 3.364 | 28.034 | 28.034 | 2.337 | 19.474 | 19.474 |
| 2 | 1.258 | 10.482 | 38.516 | 1.258 | 10.482 | 38.516 | 1.917 | 15.972 | 35.446 |
| 3 | 1.068 | 8.904 | 47.419 | 1.068 | 8.904 | 47.419 | 1.437 | 11.973 | 47.419 |
| 4 | 1.000 | 8.330 | 55.749 | | | | | | |
| 5 | .967 | 8.062 | 63.811 | | | | | | |
| 6 | .881 | 7.341 | 71.151 | | | | | | |
| 7 | .730 | 6.086 | 77.237 | | | | | | |
| 8 | .685 | 5.708 | 82.945 | | | | | | |
| 9 | .598 | 4.985 | 87.931 | | | | | | |
| 10 | .516 | 4.299 | 92.230 | | | | | | |
| 11 | .482 | 4.019 | 96.249 | | | | | | |
| 12 | .450 | 3.751 | 100.000 | | | | | | |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 4 Rotated Component Matrix^a

| | Component | | |
|--|-----------|-------------|-------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Low organizational hierarchical positions are more frequent targets of sexual harassment | .064 | .030 | .854 |
| High hierarchical positions are more frequent target of sexual harassment | .433 | .324 | -.184 |
| Women's underrepresentation result of SH at work place | .147 | .282 | .696 |
| Women's underrepresentation due to least interest in profession | -.089 | .592 | .060 |
| Women's underrepresentation due to family and parenting | .214 | .426 | .294 |

| | | | |
|---|-------------|-------------|------|
| Women's underrepresentation due to sticky floor occupations | .082 | .768 | .083 |
| Women's underrepresentation due to patriarchal system | .416 | .518 | .081 |
| Organizations prefer to appoint male heads | .337 | .492 | .169 |
| Women lack the leadership qualities | .706 | .099 | .178 |
| Women lack decision making power | .641 | .284 | .070 |
| Women do not fit the image of the (masculine) leader | .673 | .066 | .048 |
| Women may be competent but not likeable as Head | .645 | -.062 | .134 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Appendix B: Survey Invitation**Invitation to Participate in Study**

Dear Madam

Greetings!

My name is Rizwana Yousaf, and I am a PhD student in the Faculty of Social and Historical Sciences, Department of Sociology at Technische Universität Darmstadt, Germany

My dissertation research is to study why women in Universities underrepresented in academic excellence and positions of power. I am inviting you to participate in this research study as you are serving in at various hierarchical positions in higher education institute. So your opinion is of great importance for the researcher.

May I take the opportunity to provide you with the following information to help you make an informed decision whether or not to participate? If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask.

Participation in this study will involve answering of survey questions approximately 10-15 minutes in length. Questions will relate to your experiences and observations related to reasons of women low hierarchal position in Universities occurring in the past or present.. Information from your interview will be used to understand the reasons and barriers faced by women in Universities to move up on the hierarchical ladder.

It is hoped that insights garnered from this research can be helpful to women aspiring to leadership in higher education institutions or any other field at the same time it will help to give some insight to overcome the barriers of women less progress.

Let me assure you of a couple of things:

1. Your information will be private and confidential. You will be assigned a pseudonym which will be attached to your interview data and used in final report findings.
2. Your participation in this study is voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time without consequence. If you choose to participate, you may withdraw at any time by notifying me. Upon your request to

withdraw, all information pertaining to you will be destroyed. If you choose to participate, all information will be held in strict confidence.

Thanking in anticipation.

Rizwana Yousaf

PhD Student

Faculty of Social and Historical Science

Department of Sociology

Technische Universität Darmstadt, Germany

rizwanayousaf@hotmail.com

rizwana.yousaf@stud.tu-darmstadt.de

Appendix C: Informed Consent Form

Informed Consent Form

Working title: “Underrepresentation of Women at Academic Excellence and Position of Power in Universities.”**VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM:**

I have read and understood the information on the form, and I consent to volunteer to be a subject in this study. I understand that my responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw at any time. I have received an unsigned copy of this informed consent form to keep in my possession.

Name : _____**Signature:**_____ **Date:** _____**Email or Phone where you can be reached for future contact:** _____**Best days and times to reach you:** _____

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose of the present research.

Date: _____ **Researcher’s signature:**_____

Appendix D: Semi Structured Interview Invitation

Dear -----

Greetings!

My name is Rizwana Yousaf, and I am a PhD student in the Faculty of Social and Historical Sciences, Department of Sociology at Technische Universität Darmstadt, Germany

My dissertation research is to study why women in Universities underrepresented at academic excellence and positions of power. I am inviting you to participate in this research study as you are the head of the institute; you are serving in a senior leadership role in higher education institute.

May I take the opportunity to provide you with the following information to help you make an informed decision whether or not to participate? If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask.

Participation in this study will involve an individual interview approximately 30-40 minutes in length. Questions will relate to your experiences and observations related to reasons of women low hierarchal position in Universities occurring in the past or present at the same time your steps as ahead of the Institute to empower women to achieve their goals. Information from your interview will be used to understand the reasons and barriers faced by women in Universities to move up on the hierarchical ladder.

It is hoped that insights garnered from this research can be helpful to women aspiring to leadership in higher education institutions or any other field at the same time it will help to give some insight to overcome the barriers of women less progress.

Let me assure you of a couple of things:

1. Your interview will be private and confidential. You will be assigned a pseudonym which will be attached to your interview data and used in final report findings.
2. Your participation in this study is voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time without consequence. If you choose to participate, you may withdraw at any time by notifying me. Upon your request to

withdraw, all information about you will be destroyed. If you choose to participate, all information will be held in strict confidence.

I will visit you as per your schedule and convenience. I will be in Pakistan from 12 August to 12 September 2014, if you choose to be the part of my research, I am looking forward to hearing from you for likely appointment and venue.

Rizwana Yousaf

PhD Student

Faculty of social and historical science

Department of Sociology

Technische Universitat Darmstadt, Germany

rizwanayousaf@hotmail.com

rizwana.yousaf@stu.tu-darmstadt.de

Appendix E: Interview Schedule**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE****Underrepresentation of Women: Academic Excellence and Positions of Power in Universities**

ID. No. _____

Section-1**Background Information of the Respondents**

| Sr # | Questions /Statements | Response Category | Codes |
|------|-----------------------------------|--|----------------------|
| 1. | Name of the Respondent (optional) | | |
| 2. | Name of the University | | <input type="text"/> |
| 3. | Employment Department | 1= Academic 2= Administration | <input type="text"/> |
| 4. | Administrative Department | 1= Treasury 2= Registrar 3=Administration 4= Student affairs 5=----- (Skip Q No 4 for Academic) | <input type="text"/> |
| 5. | Academic Faculty | 1. Faculty of Arts and Humanities 2. Faculty of Behavioural and Social Sciences 3. Faculty of Commerce 4. Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences 5. Faculty of Education 6. Faculty of Islamic Studies 7. Faculty of Life-Sciences 8. Faculty of Science (Skip Q No 5 for Administration) | <input type="text"/> |

| | | | |
|------------|--|---|----------------------|
| 6. | Academic Department | 1.----- | <input type="text"/> |
| 7. | Employment type | 1=Regular 2=Contract 3= Visiting | <input type="text"/> |
| 8. | What is your Designation? | 1= Lecturer 2= Asstt. Prof 3=Associate Prof 4 =Professor 5= Head of Department 6=Assistant regis/Treasurer 7= Dept.regis/Treasurer 8=Additional regis/Treasurer 9= Regis/Treasurer 10= Director 11=Assistant/Secretary 12= ----- | <input type="text"/> |
| 9. | What is your current organizational scale? | 1= 16 2=17 3=18 4= 19 5=20 6=21 7=----- | <input type="text"/> |
| 10. | What was your Organisational scale at the time of joining? | 1= 16 2=17 3=18 4= 19 5=20 6=21 7=----- | <input type="text"/> |
| 11. | Total years of service | 1= 1-5 2=6-10 3=11 -15 4=16-20 5= 21 + | <input type="text"/> |
| 12. | What is your Age? | 1=20-24, 2 =25-29, 3= 30-34 4=35-39, 5=40-44, 6= 45+ | <input type="text"/> |
| 13. | Level of Education | 1=Masters 2=M.Phil 3= PhD 4----- other | <input type="text"/> |
| 14. | What is your marital status? | 1=Separated 2=Divorced 3=Widowed 4= Married 5=Never married | <input type="text"/> |
| 15. | Number of children | 01= 0 02 =1 03 = 2 04 = 3 05= 4 06 = 5+ | <input type="text"/> |

| | | | |
|------------|--|---|----------------------|
| 16. | Family Structure | 1=Nuclear 2= Extended 3= Joint | <input type="text"/> |
| 17. | How many hours do you work daily on Job? | 1=6 2= 8 3=10 4=----- | <input type="text"/> |
| 18. | How many hours you work for family and taking care of kids daily? | 1= 1-2 2= 3-4 3=5-6 4=----- | <input type="text"/> |
| 19. | What kind of support do you have for Family/Kids? | 1= None 2=Maid 3= Day Care 4= Family member 5= ----- | <input type="text"/> |
| 20. | What is a prime priority for you? | 1= Family 2= Job 3= Professional growth 4= ----- | <input type="text"/> |
| 21. | Do you take leaves for domestic issues? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes | <input type="text"/> |
| 22. | Do you take short leaves for domestic issues? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes | <input type="text"/> |
| 23. | Do you prefer to stay at work after working hours to complete assignments? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes | <input type="text"/> |
| 24. | Do you like to work at home to accomplish professional assignments? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes | <input type="text"/> |
| 25. | Do you prefer to take additional duties at work? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes | <input type="text"/> |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|--------------------------|
| 26. | Can you leave your kids/Husband/ Parents to travel Nationwide for professional assignment? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 27. | Can you leave your kids/Husband /Parents to travel abroad for professional assignment? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes (If No ask Q. No 24) | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 28. | What are the reasons not leave kids/husband /parents for professional assignments? | 1= Home comes first 2= Kids are too young 3=Not allowed by Husband/Father 4= Parents are old 5= ----- other | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 29. | What is the promotion criterion in your University? | 1=Education 2= Experience 3=Publication 4=Good rapport with seniors 5= other ----- | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Skip Q 25-48 for those working in Administration | | | |
| 30. | How many publications do you have in last five years? | 01= 0 02 =1 03 = 2 04 = 3 05= 4 06 = 5 07=6 08= 7 09= 8+ | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 31. | How many publications do you have in impact factor International journals in last five years? | 01= 0 02 =1 03 = 2 04 = 3 05= 4 06 = 5 07=6 08= 7 09= 8+ | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | | | |
|------------|---|--|----------------------|
| | | | |
| 32. | How many publications do you have in impact factor National journals in last five years? | 01= 0 02 =1 03 = 2 04 = 3 05= 4 06 = 5 07=6 08= 7 09= 8+ | <input type="text"/> |
| 33. | How many conferences have you attended abroad for Research paper presentation in last five years? | 01= 0 02 =1 03 = 2 04 = 3 05= 4 06 = 5 07=6 08= 7 09= 8+ | <input type="text"/> |
| 34. | How many conferences have you attended within the country for Research paper presentation in last five years? | 01= 0 02 =1 03 = 2 04 = 3 05= 4 06 = 5 07=6 08= 7 09= 8+ | <input type="text"/> |
| 35. | What is your prescribed workload of courses in a semester? | 01= 0 02 =1 03 = 2 04 = 3 05= 4 06 = 5 07=6 08= 7 | <input type="text"/> |
| 36. | How many courses do you teach in one semester? | 01= 0 02 =1 03 = 2 04 = 3 05= 4 06 = 5 07=6 08= 7 | <input type="text"/> |
| 37. | Do you get extra payment for additional courses other than your prescribed workload? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes | <input type="text"/> |

| | | | |
|------------|---|---|----------------------|
| 38. | What is your prescribed work load for thesis supervision in a year? | 01= 0 02 =1 03 = 2 04 = 3 05= 4 06 = 5 07=6 08= 7 | <input type="text"/> |
| 39. | How many masters/BS (Hons) thesis do you supervised in last five year? | 01= 0 02 =1 03 = 2 04 = 3 05= 4 06 = 5 07=6 08= 7 | <input type="text"/> |
| 40. | How many M.Phil. theses do you supervised last five year? | 01= 0 02 =1 03 = 2 04 = 3 05= 4 06 = 5 07=6 08= 7 | <input type="text"/> |
| 41. | How many PhD theses do you supervise during your service? | 01= 0 02 =1 03 = 2 04 = 3 05= 4 06 = 5 07=6 08= 7 | <input type="text"/> |
| 42. | Do you get extra payment for the additional workload of thesis supervision? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes | <input type="text"/> |
| 43. | According to you what are the main barriers for women to access higher hierarchical positions in Universities? (You can choose more than one option) | 1. Unfavourable policies 2. Lack of Professional skills 3. Lack of requisite skills 4. Lack of Experience 5. Lack of colleague support 6. Lack of opportunity to networking 7. Lack of enthusiasm for | <input type="text"/> |

| | | | |
|------------|---|--|--------------------------|
| | | challenging assignments 8. Family and children responsibility 9. They are burdened at home/work 10. -----other | |
| 44. | What do you think which factors are important for women's promotion? | 1. Specialized education 2. Advanced training 3. Variety of work experience 4. Proper networking 5. More working hours 6. Availability when needed in Office 7. -----other | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 45. | Do you think women face sexual harassment at workplace in Pakistani universities? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 46. | Have you ever experienced harassment within and on the way to university? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes (If Yes ask No 53) | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 47. | What do you think why some women experience sexual harassment? | 1. Patriarchal Society 2. Women provocative dressing 3. Makeup | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | | | |
|------------|---|---|--------------------------|
| | | 4. Make them meek/weak 5. Shake confidence 6. Suppress their professional growth 7. To suppress their independence 8. ----- | |
| 48. | What kind of harassment women usually face? | | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 49. | Do you think sexual harassment at work affect the women's performance? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 50. | Do you think sexual harassment could hamper women to climb high hierarchical level? | 1=Yes 2= No 3=Sometimes (If Yes ask No 57) | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 51. | How could sexual harassment hamper the women to reach high hierarchical level? | | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Section 2 Sexual Harassment: Underrepresentation at Academic Excellence and Position of Power

| 1=Never,2=Rarely,3=Sometimes 4=Often,5=Very Often | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Question | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 52. | How often women face sexual harassment in your department? | | | | | |
| 53. | How often women experience verbal harassment in your department? (Comments and questions about appearance, lifestyle, sexual orientation, offensive phone calls) | | | | | |
| 54. | How often women experience Non- Verbal Harassment in your department? (Whistling, sexually-suggestive gestures, display of sexual materials) | | | | | |
| 55. | How often women experience Physical harassment in your department? (Physical violence, touching, unnecessary proximity) | | | | | |
| 56. | Have you ever experienced sexual harassment (SH) at the workplace? | | | | | |
| 57. | How often you experienced Verbal SH | | | | | |
| 58. | How often u experienced Non-Verbal SH | | | | | |
| 59. | How often u experienced Physical SH | | | | | |
| 60. | How often women experience sexual harassment from a supervisor, boss or head of department? | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|--|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| 61. | How often women experience sexual harassment from senior colleagues? | | | | | |
| 62. | How often women experience sexual harassment from Co-worker? | | | | | |
| 63. | How often women experience sexual harassment from junior colleagues? | | | | | |
| 64. | How often women experience sexual harassment from students? | | | | | |
| Section 3: Underrepresentation at Academic Excellence and Position of Power | | | | | | |
| 1=Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree,3=Neutral, 4=Agree,5=Strongly agree | | | | | | |
| 65. | Do you agree women's underrepresentation at academic excellence and a position of power are the result of Sexual harassment at the workplace? | | | | | |
| 66. | Do you agree women's underrepresentation is the result of women's least interest in Professional growth? | | | | | |
| 67. | Do you agree women's underrepresentation is the result of family and parenting responsibilities? | | | | | |
| 68. | Do you agree women's underrepresentation is due to the selection of occupations which are "sticky-floor"? | | | | | |
| 69. | Do you agree women's underrepresentation is the result of a patriarchal system in society? | | | | | |
| 70. | Do you agree regardless of women's qualification and education; organisations | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|-----|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| | prefer to appoint male heads? | | | | | |
| 71. | Do you agree women lack the leadership qualities? | | | | | |
| 72. | Do you agree women lack decision making power which a boss needs to implement/ change various policies? | | | | | |
| 73. | Do you agree women do not fit the image of the (masculine) leader? | | | | | |
| 74. | Do you agree women may be competent but not likeable as Head or Organisational representatives? | | | | | |

Sexual Harassment Act Awareness/Implementation

| Sr # | Questions /Statements | Response Category | Codes |
|------|--|---|--------------------------|
| 75. | Do you have knowledge about Sexual Harassment Act 2010? | 1= Yes 2=No (If Yes Ask No. 88) | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 76. | How did you get information about the Act? | 1= Parent University 2= Another University 3= TV 4= newspaper 5= ----- | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 77. | Does the Act implement in your department? | 1= Yes 2=No | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 78. | Has this Act displayed in your department where everyone can see and read? | 1= Yes 2=No | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 79. | Do you have the copy of this Act in your office? | 1= Yes 2=No | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 80. | Has your department organised a seminar for awareness of this act? | 1= Yes 2=No (If Yes Ask Q.No 93) | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | | | |
|------------|---|---|----------------------|
| | | | |
| 81. | How many seminars your department has organised in one semester? | 1=0 2=1 3=2 4=3 5=----- | <input type="text"/> |
| 82. | Has your department constituted a committee to deal with SH complaints? | 1=Yes 2=No | <input type="text"/> |
| 83. | Do you know anyone in your department has registered the complaint about sexual harassment? | 1=Yes 2=No (If yes ask Q. No. 96) | <input type="text"/> |
| 84. | Do you think the handling of sexual harassment cases is satisfactory in your department? | 1=Yes 2=No | <input type="text"/> |

85. What do you suggest how working women in Pakistan can attain high academic and positions of power?

THANK YOU

Appendix F: Interview Guide**INTERVIEW GUIDE****Underrepresentation of Women: Academic Excellence and Positions of Power in Universities**

1. Name
2. Designation
3. Faculty/Department
4. University
5. Why are the majority of women underrepresented in academic excellence and positions of power in universities?
6. What barriers women usually experience moving up on hierarchical scales?
7. What is your suggestion for women who try to climb hierarchical ladders?
8. How would you explain Protection Against Harassment of Women at Workplace Act, 2010
9. Do you think this Act is useful for the university?
10. Would you like to implement it in your department? (if have not already implemented)
11. How would you implement it?
12. Have you already constituted a committee?
13. Have you organised awareness seminars?
14. Who was invited to seminars? (If already organised the seminar)?
15. What do you think is an appropriate way to give awareness to society?

Appendix G: Conceptual and Operational Definitions

1.1 Underrepresentation of women in Academia

Some women may advance to the top of the middle management and academic hierarchy but are unable to pass through barriers. These barriers might restrict them to reach the top of academic hierarchy, hence are underrepresented at the academic excellence and positions of power (Amondi, 2011; Cochran et al., 2013; Fox and Xiao, 2013; Gardner and Blackstone, 2013; Harris and Leberman, 2012; Hult and Callister, 2006; Helen, 2014; Kakker & Bhandhari, 2015; Machado-Taylor & Özkanli, 2013; Nemoto, 2013).

Along with various personal, organisational and societal suppressing factors, the glass ceiling could be a major factor which might be contributing to underrepresentation of women.

1.2 Women

Women mean and include a woman employed, whether directly or through any agency, for wages or similar other consideration in any establishment, house or industry (Prevention Bill, 2000).

1.3 Hierarchy

Typically, the hierarchy is defined as a rank ordering of individuals along one or more socially important dimension (Gruenfeld & Tiedens, 2010). Hierarchies can be formally delineated, as when power and authority are vested in some official positions more than others.

1.4 The University

A university is an institution of higher education and research, which grants academic degrees in a variety of subjects (Punjab Bureau of Statistics, 2013). University is the workplace in present research according to sexual harassment Act (2010) workplace” means the place of work or the premises where an organization or employer operates and includes building, factory, open area or a larger geographical area where the activities of the organization or employer are carried out and including any situation that is linked to official work or official activity outside the office (AASHA 2011, Gillani, 2010).

1.5 Implementation

All persons who allege gender discrimination or sexual harassment under the provisions of the Higher Education Commission policy (2011) are advised to contact the Harassment Monitoring Officer (HMO) in their respective higher education institute. This provision would ensure that all such complainants will have access to a common source of consistent and expert advice and that reliable data may be gathered on the incidence of discrimination and harassment in the HEI community. If a complainant is reluctant to contact the officer, the complainant may contact a trained or qualified individual or the Employment Supervisor, Manager, Department Chair or Dean. It will be the responsibility of the individual contacted to report the case to HMO without identifying either the complainant or the alleged offender and to ask for advice on procedure and policy from the Officer to effect a solution if a solution is necessary (HEC, 2011).

1.6 Harassment of Women in the Workplace Act, (2010) Work Place Management

In 2010 it was the first time in the history of Pakistan that sexual harassment has been defined in the Law. Until 2010 sexual harassment was not considered a crime, but only a social evil. In early 2010 Pakistan Government passed a Law called 'Protection against Harassment of Women at Workplace, Act 2010. The intention of the Law is to provide an opportunity to all organisations, public, private and civil society, to develop a self-regulatory mechanism whereby organisations could handle the problems related to sexual harassment internally. Adoption of this Code has become mandatory for all organisations.

In recognizance of the provisions of the Constitution of Pakistan, where non-discrimination on the basis of sex in public and workplace is stated in Article 25, 26 and 27, By adopting and making a Law, Government of Pakistan acknowledging the commitment to international conventions, including ILO Conventions 100 and 111 and the United Nations Convention for the Elimination of all forms of discrimination against women (CEDAW) (AASHA, 2011).

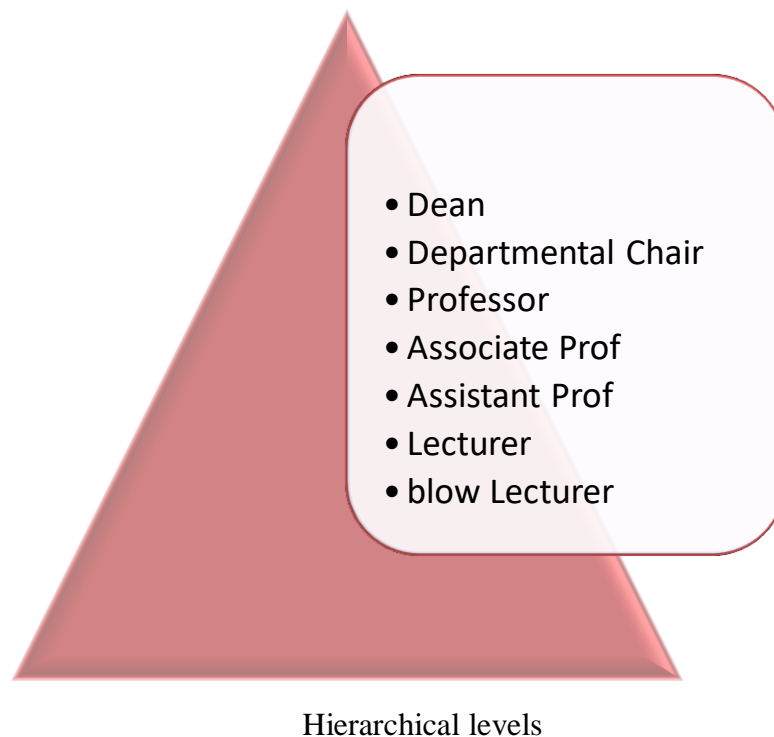
2. Operational Definitions

2.1 Women

The main focus of debate is a distinct group of employed women in public and private sector universities working from scale 16 to scale 21. This helped to understand how the hierarchical position of women is contributing towards the sexual harassment experience OR other hindrances or barriers at the workplace.

2.2 Hierarchy

In the present research employed women working on the position of Professor, Associate Professor, Assistant Professor, Lecturer and those who work in the lower position in academic and administrative positions in academic departments were included in the research. At the same time, Deans and Head of Departments were included in the research.



2.2.1 Dean of Academic Schools

Deans are responsible for the administration of a school or college, which is further subdivided into academic departments. A university may have several schools or colleges (King & Gomez, 2008). Deans foster good teaching, represent their schools or colleges, plan budgets, build and maintain good work environments across their academic departments, provide direction, and recruit faculty (Montez, Wolverton & Gmelch 2003).

2.2 .2 Department Chair

A faculty member appointed to coordinate the activities of an academic department and designated as the budgetary officer of the department is called a chair. Department Chairs serve at the will of the Vice Chancellor. Termination of a chair's administrative duties does not affect the person's status as a member of the faculty.

2.2.3 Professor

The highest academic rank in university is a Professor. Permanent full-time faculty members holding this rank are members of the regular faculty and are tenured. Any agreement shall be over the Vice Chancellor's Signature. In order to be a professor in Pakistan, one needs PhD from an HEC recognised institution in the relevant field, 15-years teaching/research experience in HEC recognised university or a post-graduate institution or professional experience in the relevant field in a national or international organisation. Or, 10-years post-Ph.D. Teaching/research experience in a recognised university or a post-graduate institution or professional experience in the relevant field in a national or international organisation. The Applicant must have 15 research publications with at least 5 publications in the last 5 years in HEC recognised Journals. After 30th June 2015 at least 8 years post PhD level experience in HEC recognised university or a post-graduate institution or professional experience in the relevant field in a national or international organisation would be required to be a Professor (HEC 2015).

2.2.4 Associate Professor

The intermediate rank of the three professorial ranks is called Associate Professor. Permanent full-time faculty members holding this rank are members of the regular faculty and are tenured. Associate Professors in Pakistan needs PhD in the relevant field from an HEC recognised university/institution in 5-years post-PhD teaching/ research experience in an HEC recognised university or a post-graduate institution or professional experience in the relevant field in a national or international organisation. The applicant must have 10 research publications (with at least 4 publications in the last 5 years in the HEC recognised Journals. After 30th June 2015 at least 4 years post PhD level experience in HEC recognised University or a post-graduate institution or professional required to get the tenure (HEC 2015).

2.2.4 Assistant Professor

The beginning rank of professorial status is called Assistant Professor. Permanent full-time faculty members holding this rank are members of the regular faculty and are tenured or are accruing time toward tenure. Any agreement shall be over the Chancellor's signature (The University of Mississippi n.d, HEC 2013). Assistant Professor in HEC recognised universities need a PhD in relevant field from HEC recognised university/institution or Master's degree (foreign) or M.Phil. (Pakistan) or equivalent degrees awarded after 18 years of education as determined by the HEC in the relevant field from an HEC recognised university /institution. If the individual having a PhD degree, there is no experience required in academics, but those are having Masters (foreign) or M.Phil needs 4-years teaching/research experience in an HEC recognised university or a postgraduate institution or professional experience in the relevant field in a national or international organisation (HEC 2015).

2.2.5 Lecturer

Instructors who meet departmental, school or college and institutional criteria may be promoted to the rank of Lecturer. In order to get the Lecturer status person must have a First Class Master's Degree OR equivalent degree awarded after 16 Years of education in the relevant field from an HEC recognised university/institution with no 3rd division in the

academic career (HEC 2013). A permanent Lecture can work in university up to 60 years of his/her age (HEC 2015).

2.2.6 Employed on a 17 or Less Scale

A Research or Teaching Associates, Teaching Assistant or Office Assistant's qualification and experience may vary as per the individual university policy criteria.

2.2 Hierarchy and Barriers

1. The role of personal, organisational and societal barriers with women's underrepresentation at higher academic hierarchical levels.
2. Reasons for low hierarchical positions of women in universities (e.g least interest in professional growth, family and parenting responsibilities, sticky-floor, patriarchal system, male heads, lack of leadership qualities, lack decision-making power, masculine leader, less likeable as Head or organisational representatives.

2.5 University

In the present research one large public, one small public, one public- private and one private general university were the part of the study.

Large Public University: has a total of 13 faculty of which there were 63 academic departments, research centres, and institutes. Out of 13 faculties following faculties were selected randomly to be the part of research

1. Faculty of Arts and Humanities
2. Faculty of Behavioural and Social Sciences
3. Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences
4. Faculty of Education
5. Faculty of Law
6. Faculty of Life-Sciences
7. Faculty of Islamic Studies
8. Faculty of Commerce

Large Public-Private University has ten faculties and all women working in departments were included in the sample as the number of female staff was lower as compared to male. Three departments excluded from the sample as there was no female staff working.

Large Private University has 11 faculties, Faculty of Engineering, Information Technology, College of Law, Pharmacy, Faculty of Social Sciences were selected randomly. However, faculties who did not have any female staff were excluded from the sample.

Small Public University: has few faculties and department and a number of female staff were also scarce. All the women employed were included in the sample.

2.6 Harassment of women at the Workplace Act, (2010) Implementation

1. Knowledge of women about sexual harassment Act 2010.
2. Implementation of the Act in respective departments.
3. Arrangements of seminars for awareness.
4. Formulation of Committee to deal with SH cases.
5. Registration of complaints about sexual harassment in the department.
6. Sexual harassment cases mechanism.

Appendix H: Curriculum Vitae

Rizwana Yousaf
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 Institute for Sociology
 rizwana.yousaf@stud.tu-darmstadt.de
rizwanayousaf@hotmail.com

EDUCATION

Technische Universität, Darmstadt

PhD, Organizational and Gender Sociology

Dec 2013-July 2018

1. **Dissertation:** “Underrepresentation of Women: Academic Excellence and Positions of Power in Universities”
2. Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Rudi Schmiede
3. Second Supervisor: - Prof.Dr. Marek Fuchs

University of the Punjab, Lahore

M.Phil. (Sociology)

2004-2006

1. **Dissertation:-** “Perception of Professionals: Harassment against women at workplace”
2. Supervisor: Prof.Dr.M.Zikria Zakar

University of the Punjab, Lahore,

M.A (Sociology)

2000-2002

1. **Dissertation:-** “Higher Education of Girls: Role of Male Guardians Aspiration”
2. Supervisor: Prof. Dr. M.Zikria Zakar

RESEARCH AND TEACHING INTEREST:-

1. Gender Studies, Gender Discrimination, Organizational Sociology, Glass ceiling

PUBLICATIONS

1. Barriers to Women’s Underrepresentation in Academic Excellence and Positions of Power.2017. Asian Journal of German and European studies (Springer Open). 2,1-13. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s40856-017-0013-6>
2. Harassment Act Implementation in Higher Education Institutions.2016.Open Journal of Leadership,5(1),8-19 <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ojl.2016.51002>
3. Underrepresentation of Women at academic Excellence and Position of Power: Role of harassment and Glass Ceiling. 2016. Open Journal of Social Sciences,4(2).173-185 <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/jss.2016.42023>
4. Professional Perception of the Harassment of Women in the Work Places and of its Impact on Well-being.2014. *Journal of Research in Gender Studies*, (1), 806-818. <https://www.questia.com/library/journal/1P3-3404205271/professional-perception-of-the-harassment-of-women>

5. Sexual Harassment among Women Working in Unorganized Sector. 2014. Contemporary Social Sciences, 23(3-4), 49-54
6. Husband only Migration: Women Left Behind. 2013. Journal of National Development, vol. 26(2).
7. Women's Professional Competence: An Effect of Harassment at Work Place. 2012. Gender Main Streaming: An Analysis of Pakistani Society. Global vision publishing house: Delhi India.
8. Pakistan to Greece; Illegal Migration among Dwellers of Gujrat. 2011. Revisiting Migration Issues in Pakistan. Pp 78-94. Lap Lambert Academic Publishing (Germany).
9. Causes of Brain drain of Doctors in Gujrat. 2011. Revisiting Migration Issues in Pakistan. Pp. 106-119. Lap Lambert Academic Publishing (Germany).

WORKS IN PROGRESS

1. Women Underrepresentation in Academia: Main Causes and Barriers
2. Fewer Women on Academic Excellence Position: Masculine Practices at the University

FELLOWSHIPS AND AWARDS

- | | |
|---|------|
| 1. Prof.Sorin Huss FondsTU Darmstadt | 2016 |
| 2. Scholarship and Support Programme (STIBET, TU Darmstadt) | 2016 |
| 3. Frauenfördermittel 2014 (Data collection, TU Darmstadt) | 2014 |
| 4. Distinction (MA,PU,Lahore) | 2002 |
| 5. Role of Honour (Queen Mary College, Lahore) | 1998 |

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

1. Husband only Foreign Migration: Women left behind in SICSS at Shanghai, China 12-13 July 2013.
2. Professional Perception of the Harassment of Women at Workplace in Gender Studies in the Age of Globalization, Conference, at Bucharast, Romania 2-3 June 2011.

TEACHING AND MENTORING

Technische Universität, Darmstadt

Lecturer (Visiting):- Advanced Statistical Methods in Research –SPSS

Summer 2015, 2016

University of the Gujrat, Pakistan

2006-08- 2011-13

1. Lecturer: Research Methods, Gender studies, Demography, General Sociology
2. Thesis Advisor for ten Master and two M.Phil. students
3. Focal Person

University of the Punjab, Pakistan

1. Lecturer (Visiting): Environmental Sociology

2005-2006

SKILLS

1. Proficient in statistical analysis and software (SPSS)
2. Proficient in Qualitative analysis and basic use of software (MAXQDA)

LANGUAGES

- English(Fluent), German (Good), Urdu, Hindi, Punjabi (Native), Arabic (reading and writing)